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ADDRESS

ON THE

MARITIME RIGHTS

OF

GREAT BRITAIN.

BY SIR FREDERICK MORTON EDEN, BART.

'Tis better using France than trusting France :
Let us be back'd with God, and with the Seas*,
Which he hath giv'n for fence impregnable ;
And, with their helps only, defend ourselves :
In them, and in ourselves, our safety lies,

Shaksp. Hen. VI. 3d Part.

* This has been the advice of every man who in any age understood and favoured the
interest of England.

Dr. Johnson's Note.

SECOND EDITION.

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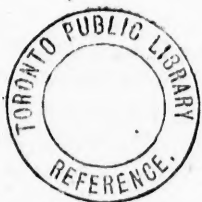
By T. CURRIE HANSARD, Peterborough-court, Fleet-street.

1808.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

To this new edition of two tracts, (on the Maritime Rights of Great Britain,) the first of which was originally published in September last, and the second in November, is added a third part, offering some suggestions on the measures necessary to render the United Kingdom independent of other countries for the most indispensable articles now supplied by foreign commerce.

To those, who expect a definition of our " Maritime Rights," it will be sufficient, briefly, to observe, that they comprize the right of exerting the naval power of Great Britain, in destroying the military, commercial, financial, and other resources of the enemy; and that, consequently, they may prohibit all neutral trade which appears calculated to augment those resources; and will be fully justified in regulating the navigation of the High Seas accordingly.

F. M. E.

Pall-Mall, 15th March, 1808.

ERRATA.

Page 12, line 4, from bottom, for inflection read infliction,

52, note,

for Buonaparte read Bonaparte

66, 2d note

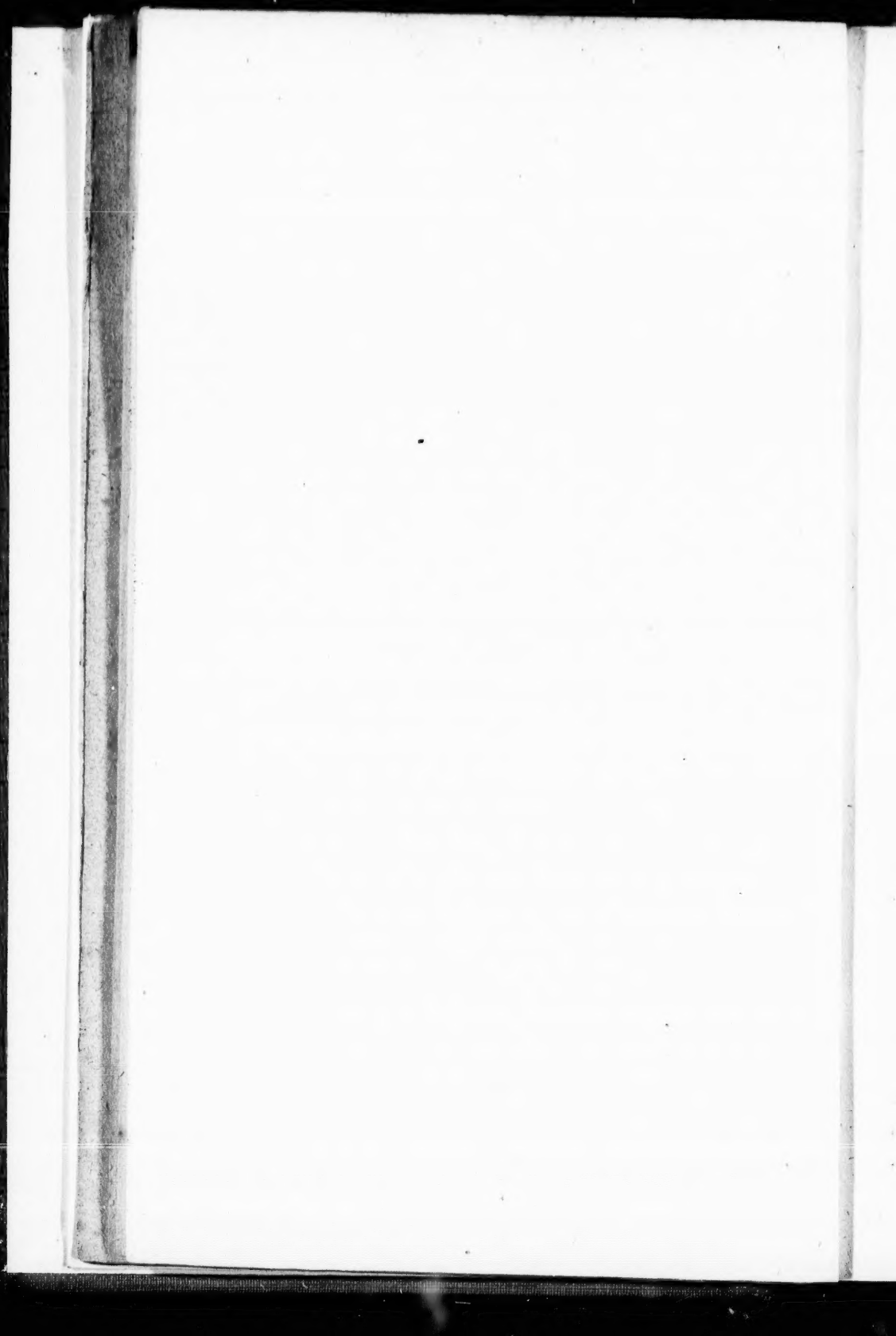
for Parliament's read Parliamentary

107, line 6,

omit the words to be.

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ADDRESS
TO
THE PEOPLE:
ON THE
MARITIME RIGHTS
OF
GREAT BRITAIN.

(Part the first.)

AMONG the many blessings which have fallen to the lot of this happy island, it possesses this singular advantage, that, *in periods of public danger, an appeal to the understandings of the people is sufficient to produce that union of sentiment which in other countries cannot be created without flattering their prejudices.* This is the result of the political education in which you all more or less participate. The British Constitution, from its very nature, leads you to investigate the various acts of government affecting you either individually or collectively: and thus schooled, as you every day are, in

the discussion of public measures; you may be addressed as a *thinking* people, who are not guided by the flashy passions of the moment in their commendations or their censure. Few great national questions can be brought before you which you have not previously weighed and examined: and the consequence is that, as your estimate of difficulties is usually correct, your exertions to overcome them are in general persevering.

In taking a fair view of your present situation you will feel that the qualities, here ascribed to you, may be advantageously employed in averting those perils to which our colonies, our commerce, our naval power, and even the independence of the country, are exposed, from the secret machinations, rather than the open force, of the enemy. Never was there a period in which you were more imperiously called on to discharge the duties imposed on you as a free, unconquered, high-minded, nation; but, be it also recollected for your comfort, never was there a period in which you were summoned to discharge those duties, under circumstances less calculated to distract your judgment or to fetter your conduct. All you do may, and must, be influenced by considerations only of moral right, self-preservation, and security. No complex theories respecting the ancient system of European balances, no scrupulous forbearance to pursue British objects which may interfere with con-

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tinental interests, no financial embarrassments at home resulting from subsidiary engagements abroad, no apprehensions of scarcity in consequence of a bad harvest, not even the murmurs of party politics, are now, in any degree, to be dreaded as impediments which should arrest (as they too often have arrested) the progress of the country in her endeavours to maintain her dignity and assert her rights. France, undoubtedly, has extended her power: but you possess ample means of defence which are peculiarly your own. Nor will the state of subjugated Europe appal you when you reflect under what circumstances its conquest has been achieved by Bonaparte. Availing himself of the talents, which it was the natural effect of the French Revolution to call forth, he has indeed conquered all the small states, and humbled the great monarchies; most effectually humbled them by subduing the minds of their rulers; but had Austrians or Prussians equal inducements with Britons to hazard their existence rather than submit to the invader? In general, they remained indifferent spectators of the conflict: the fate of their country was decided by regular armies; and (as might reasonably have been expected) revolutionary ability triumphed over ancient tactics. In free countries, a very different, and more efficient, system of defence can be adopted: and in all, where a general feeling can be excited, the people may usefully co-operate with the army. Such

has been the case with Germany in former times ; and two remarkable instances occur in the annals of the French Revolution, (the expulsion of the Whites from St. Domingo, and the six-years war of the Royalists in La Vendée and Britany,) to prove that men, associated by a common tie of interest, acquire a force of character, and powers of resistance to oppression, which military discipline alone cannot confer. It is, probably, owing to the operation of national sentiments that, on every occasion, during the late and present war, (as at Alexandria, and Maida,) in which a fair measure could be taken of the military prowess of the two nations, the British legions have proved their superiority.

Neither will it escape your observation that, however high the military character of France may now be in consequence of her recent successes in the North of Europe, the conquest of England is not to be accomplished by armies alone. She must provide sailors ; a race of men which cannot be disciplined for service as expeditiously as soldiers. We, indeed, do not find that good foremast men can be obtained for our navy but through the intervention of sea apprenticeships, an extensive coasting trade, fisheries, and colonies. It cannot, however, be doubted that Bonaparte, unchecked by past failures to procure *ships, colonies and commerce*, will henceforth direct his attention to such measures

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of military preparation in France, aided by diplomatic craft and commercial avarice in other countries, as may appear to be best calculated to overthrow the remaining barrier which our naval power still opposes to his projects. Those projects are, primarily and principally, his own aggrandizement and security ; and, as a part of the system necessary to render that security permanent, the elevation of his relations and dependants to the rank of royal sentinels on those subordinate thrones which now form the outposts of his empire. As far, also, as may be compatible with his principal object, he is desirous (and it is of importance to the cause of Britain that you should be satisfied that he is so) that the nation, which he dignifies with the appellation of *great and good*, should be industrious, wealthy, nay every thing but—free. His internal administration evinces his intention to promote, among his subjects, the progress of the various arts that are conducive to civilization. He knows the temper and the genius of Frenchmen too well to think of converting them into anchorites or Tartars. Never will he check what is called luxury, (the supposed forerunner of the fall of kingdoms,) by sumptuary laws ; nor strive to become more formidable, than he actually is, by encouraging the adoption of a primeval simplicity of manners and a contempt for social refinement. The Parisian and the Provincial may still, in their dress, their diet, and

their dwellings, employ all the productions of the universe that are not the growth or manufacture of any part of the British empire.

With these views respecting France, his plans against you have developed themselves in a three-fold direction;—*in the decree for blockading the British isles ; in the scheme, not yet matured, of Northern confederacy ; and in the system, long since begun, of American neutralization.*

The blockade is not, as too many have supposed, mere angry language, mere imperial thunder, “ full of sound and fury, signifying nothing.” France knows the nature of war too well to sanction the existence of any commerce that benefits us; and will not, even with her reduced marine, allow the sword, she aims at our heart, to be turned aside by the cloak of neutrality. Our merchants will find that in thus exercising this (it must be confessed, legitimate) mode of annoying her enemy, by confiscating vessels in which any British produce or manufactures may be discovered, she is not to be duped by the contrivances of commercial ingenuity; and it is to be hoped they will, at length, unanimously disdain to purchase licences to trade by becoming citizens of Philadelphia and burghers of Bremen; or to seek protection for their cargoes from the flags of Pappenburgh and Knipphausen. It is time they should

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feel that it is not degrading artifices abroad, but vigorous exertions at home, that will give ultimate security to the sources of their opulence. They ought never to forget that it is only in fable that the mouse preserves the lion from the trammels of the hunter.

The machinations of France have more than once reared the many-headed hydra, northern neutrality, against us. In 1801, we "scotch'd the snake, "not kill'd it;" in 1807 the potent spells of Tilsit have once more invigorated it; but, ere we feel its bite, our gallant knights at Copenhagen no doubt have crushed it for ever.

But American rights, it seems, are the chief instrumental means, relied on by France for annihilating our commerce and our navy together. The Americans, not contented with the unbounded freedom of trade allowed them in British India, (a freedom which English private traders do not possess,) not contented with the advantage which the cheapness of neutral carriage has given them, of supplying the British West Indies with provisions and lumber, (the last often carried by them from British settlements in America,) and with furnishing themselves, South America, and our colonies with Indian and German manufactures; have now, after repeated insults to officers bearing his majesty's commission, and after receiving the flying

ships of France into their ports in the most friendly manner, at length denied to ours the common rights of hospitality because their commanders have successfully enforced the right of search to recover deserters.* It is remarkable that the

* It certainly must be admitted that that part of his Majesty's Proclamation of the 16th of October last, which regulates the mode of reclaiming British seamen in the service of any foreign state, has completely disentangled the question of the right to search neutral merchant-ships, from any extraneous matter relative to ships of war; and that it is a liberal proof of the disposition of Great Britain to exercise her maritime power with temper and moderation. The proclamation cannot be misconstrued by any candid mind as the act of a government deficient in vigour, when it is recollected that it proceeded from the advisers of the expedition to Copenhagen, and the framers of the orders of the 11th November, for enforcing (nearly to the full extent) the measure recommended in these pages of interdicting all commerce between the enemy and neutrals.

It cannot, however, be so readily admitted, that the proclamation is, as many commentators have considered it, a complete abandonment by this country of a pretension which was both unjust and impolitic. The practice of searching foreign ships of war for deserters has always been deemed to be conformable to naval instructions, and to be sanctioned by usage: and it does not appear, from any information before the public, that, in any former case, a British officer has been censured for this exercise of his power. Several instances too, have been mentioned of the Americans themselves having taken their seamen from the ships of war of other nations.

It is, indeed, true, that the new regulation will clear the question of the right to search merchant ships from other matter, if all discussion respecting the affair of the deserters to the Chesapeake can be considered to be now at rest: but if, having made reparation to the United States for a supposed injury, Great Britain is also to require reparation from them, not only for shutting their ports to our squadrons, but for refusing to deliver up

country, which treats Britain thus contumeliously, is a country rapidly rising in commercial opulence

the deserters in question, when reclaimed from the civil power in New Norfolk before the Chesapeake sailed, is it not apparent that much important matter must be debated, and that the question of searching merchant ships, although no longer connected with the question of searching ships of war, may very possibly be entangled with the questions of expatriation, and the right of reclaiming deserters in any way whatever?

As to the right itself of searching ships of war, those who deny it have alledged that it is inadmissible, because a ship of war may be considered as the floating territory of the country to which it belongs, and the entering it forcibly is a violation of national sovereignty. This modern principle of neutral publicists, if it can be applied with success to ships of war, will, very naturally, be extended; first of all, to armed merchantmen, and by a very easy transition to vessels of every other description. Indeed, the fiction on which it is attempted to be supported, is applicable to all alike. We shall be told, that according to the true spirit of the English common-law, the United States are as much entitled to contend that searching one of their frigates for British deserters is a violation of their territory, as a plaintiff in an English court of justice is justified in feigning that a contract really made at sea was made at the Royal Exchange, in defiance of the opinion quoted by Blackstone from a grave civilian, that it is absurd, and is quite impossible for the ship, in which the cause of action arises, to be really in Cornhill. We may reply, that although this fiction is justifiable in law, because the locality of such contracts is not essential to them, yet we cannot allow such a fiction, or any other analogies of municipal law, to influence the consideration of maritime rights. The very circumstance of locality, that is a ship's being at sea, essentially distinguishes its character. In the harbours of neutral states, all vessels are protected from search. But at sea, the element on which any subtraction from the force of Great Britain, must be peculiarly injurious to her, they must all submit to the accustomed and reasonable exercise of her power.

It may be presumed that it is not the flag alone which is sup-

by carrying coffees and sugars from the colonies of our enemy to Europe: and is a country whose

posed to have the extraordinary quality of converting a ship into a national domain, for all ships have a national flag; but that this conversion takes place by the delegation of authority from the state to the commander of the vessel. If this confers inviolability from search, it should be equally conferred on armed merchantmen hired by the state, on transports under the orders of naval officers, on vessels employed in protecting the revenue, and on private ships furnished with letters of marque. As the Algerines are, or may be, at war with the United States, the latter may possibly deem it expedient to authorize the captains of their trading vessels to make reprisals: or why should they not follow the example of a British sovereign, Queen Elizabeth, in forming a navy from hired merchantmen? or why not, like the same princess, grant commissions to the commanders of their Indiamen, and thus protect them from being searched by those who are really, and those whom the French denominate, pirates? Purchas's Collection will furnish the authority: "The merchants of London, in the year of our Lord 1600, joined together and made a stock of 72,000*l.* to be employed in ships and merchandizes for the discovery of a trade in the East Indies, to bring into this realm spices and other commodities—the merchants were suitors to her majesty—and, because no great action can be well carried and accomplished without an absolute authority of justice, she granted to the general of their fleet, Master James Lancaster, for his better command and government, a commission of martial law." It will naturally result from allowing the privilege of national sovereignty to men of war, that American frigates may be converted into Acapulco ships, and bring bullion or other merchandize from the enemies colonies, without being liable to be searched.

The principle on which the conduct of neutrals must be regulated is, that they must not interpose to save either belligerent from the inflection of his enemy's force. Some political theorists have doubted whether, *under this principle*, it was justifiable to detain neutral vessels, containing goods which can only aid the enemy indirectly. But there can be no doubt that it is no less within

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principal frontier is nearly two thousand miles of sea coast; whose revenue is almost wholly derived from custom house duties on goods imported, and whose navy consists of about a dozen frigates and a score or two of gun boats. The leviathan of the ocean is conceived to be no less patient than powerful.

Most auspiciously, however, for Britain, the time is arrived, which may be considered as one of those golden opportunities, that fortune some-

the principle that the direct instruments of warfare (and what are more so than well-trained seamen?) shall not be taken away from one belligerent, than that the subordinate instruments, arms, and ammunition, shall not be supplied to another. As to the inconvenience of exercising the right of search to recover deserters, and the danger of conflicts between the armed ships of two nations at peace, this objection would apply to any right of search at all; for there certainly is danger that many instances may arise in which a stout merchantman will not permit a small national lugger, or gun-boat, to examine her crew. The predominancy of the English navy is far more likely, by enforcing this right in the old way, to secure to the country its seamen and its honor, with less ultimate bloodshed, than the diplomatic mode which must in future be resorted to, under the orders of the proclamation; if any naval officer shall think it worth his while to exert his diligence in framing a state of facts respecting deserters from his ship. He will, probably, in most cases, consider them as irrecoverable as men at the bottom of the Atlantic.

The proclamation, however, has at least this negative merit, that it is a gratuitous concession, which may at any time be revoked by his Majesty's authority; an authority which has not only solemnly declared that the just rights of the country shall never be surrendered, but has, by a system of unequivocal vigour, evinced a firm determination to maintain them.

times presents in politics, which if neglected to be grasped will never again occur. One general system will, now, meet the increasing difficulties to which we are exposed from France, from the North of Europe, and from America. We can only counteract Bonaparte's code of *Continental Aggrandizement* by a British code of *Maritime Rights*; a code, which, whilst it is founded on the principles of security and self-preservation, is compatible with the purest principles of justice; and, in enabling us to carry on the war with vigour, will open to us the portal of a secure peace.

With this great ultimate object in view, you have, now, one plain open course of policy to pursue; to vindicate your right to the dominion of the sea, which the valour of British seamen has acquired; and to prove that what they acquired is not a barren sceptre, or empty title, invented by flatterers to gratify your vanity with the swelling theme of "Rule Britannia." Such indeed it will very shortly become, if (as seems to be nearly the case at present) the captains of our men of war cannot make a lawful prize because they are not accompanied by doctors and proctors to expound the laws of nations, and explain the mysteries of neutralization.

Let it not be supposed that, with respect to America, the assertion of our *Maritime Rights*

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is proposed in order to cut the Gordian knot of difficulties with that country by plunging her into a war. A few among you of ardent minds may, possibly, contend, in the language of Sir Lucius O'Trigger, that, under the well-founded causes of complaint which the United States have given us, we should consider that "the quarrel is "a very pretty quarrel as it now stands." It will, however, be evident to the sober judgment of Britons that pusillanimous acquiescence in the increasing demands of America is far more likely to terminate in ruinous hostility than a temperate, yet firm, avowal of our determination not to permit any neutral whatever to paralyze our means of annoying our enemy. The subject, it is hardly necessary to observe, is a very different one from that so frequently agitated,—the policy of our navigation laws: the question is not in what ships we should permit particular goods to be imported into, or exported from, particular parts of the British Empire; but whether, having the full command of the ocean, we ought to allow other countries to have any intercourse, by sea, with France, during the war.

What better example can we follow than that line of conduct which, at the Revolution, precisely when our civil liberties were asserted and confirmed, our great deliverer, King William, considered as necessary to secure the naval ascendancy

of Britons? By the treaty of Whitehall, dated the 12th of August 1689, it was declared "that it was agreed between "the king of Great Britain "and the States General that if, during the course "of the war, the subjects of any other king, prince, "or state, should undertake to traffick, or have "any commerce, with the subjects of the most "christian king, or, if their vessels, or shipping, "were met with in their passage to the ports, "havens, or roads, under the obedience of the "most christian king, the said vessels, shipping, "merchandize, or wares, should, in the case above- "mentioned, be attacked, and taken, by the cap- "tains of men of war, privateers, or other subjects "of the king of Great Britain and the Lords of the "States General; and should, before proper judges, "be condemned for lawful prize." It is true that the prosecution of this measure was given up, in compliance with the representations of the northern powers; but it must be recollected that the chief object of King William was a vigorous war on the continent. This country, however, is, now, differently circumstanced: and a declaration, similar to the one above noticed, extending to all vessels and goods, *coming from*, as well as *going to*, any part of France or its dependencies, would, probably, be considered by you, (and considered very justly,) as the assurance of your safety. The victories of France on the Continent, the absolute sway now exercised by her from Memel to

Constantinople, her predominating influence at St. Petersburg, and her intrigues in America, would amply justify the adoption of a measure for which the resources of Britain are so well adapted.

War cannot long be carried on without the concurrence of the people. "There must" (as Mr. Burke observes) "be not only acquiescence but zeal." That zeal, we may trust, has already been excited by the well-timed operations in the Baltic. Ere this,* they probably have secured to us the key of that sea; and with this in our hands, or under our control, we may defy attempts of invasion from that quarter, preserve a free passage for naval stores destined for our arsenals, and (what is, perhaps, of no less importance) prevent France from obtaining them. The expedition is, indeed, above all praise when considered as an earnest of the sentiments of Government respecting our Maritime Rights; and justifies the hope that they will, in due time, stake the salvation of their country on the maintenance of a system which recent events appear to have rendered indispensable.

To such a system, whilst under discussion, objections will be urged in every possible form. The press will groan with pamphlets to prove its impolicy: traders, fattening on neutralization, will declaim against its injustice: the opinions of foreign

* 9th Sept. 1807.

civilians will be quoted as paramount law, which we must not venture to disregard without subjecting ourselves to the ban of mankind. We shall be told that Britain is scarcely equal to the present conflict; that it is madness to provoke new foes; that America, once offended, will by non-importation acts make bankrupts of our manufacturers, and by non-exportation acts starve our colonies; that we shall be deprived of naval stores; that peace will be placed at an immeasurable distance; that the war expences will be doubled; and the present taxes rendered unproductive. To these, and similar, arguments, which will be addressed to the vilest passions of the human breast, your avarice and your fears, be your plain answer this; that you have great national interests to preserve, and are determined to hazard your existence rather than abandon them. The decision once made, the hand and the heart of the nation will go together.

It might easily be proved from commercial and financial details that even on the principles of cold calculation (principles which are not now applicable to the question of war or peace) you would be gainers by the assertion of your maritime rights. The idea that we should continue our deference to neutrals in order to supply the sources of taxation is a mere bug-bear, that will strut and fret its hour upon the stage and then be heard no more.

The taxes raised on foreign consumers by our customs constitute a very insignificant portion of the public revenue. Nor can America deprive our manufacturers of the means of paying taxes without depriving her own citizens of the necessities of life. "*Opposuit natura Alpemque nivemque.*" One hard winter would revive among them the Anglomania for woollens and linens; which, besides clothing them, feed their merchants, and fill their Exchequer. No non-importation act would be attended to. Can the Spaniards, in peace or war, prevent the introduction of British manufactures into their colonies? The interdiction, too, of all commerce with those parts of Europe which are under the dominion or control of Buonaparte, and in the event of war, of all commerce with the British empire, would prevent the Americans from using German manufactures, (if subjugated Germany has manufactures to export,) on India goods, as substitutes for the woollens, linens, and cottons of Great Britain. The whole of the India trade would center in this country; and, in various points of view, might be rendered more conducive, than it now is, to the interests of our ship-owners, our merchants, and manufacturers; to the support of our naval power; and the preservation of our empire in Asia: an empire, which, it is observable, is indebted to Marquis Wellesley's vigorous administration for the most efficient means of providing resistance to French aggres-

sion; more particularly for the acquisition of a valuable line of sea coast that will open new channels of trade and new sources of maritime ascendancy. May we profit by the wisdom of that illustrious statesman, although on his return home he has not received those acclamations from your general voice which were due to the preserver of India !

The proceedings of Parliament and the acts of Government are favourable omens that a proper impulse will, at length, be given to the national feelings on maritime rights. In a Report from a Committee of the House of Commons (made the latter end of July) on the commercial state of the West India Colonies, it is said that "the distress
"of the planter is to be ascribed to one grand and
"primary evil from which all the others are easily
"to be deduced; namely, the facility of inter-
"course between the hostile colonies and Europe
"under the American neutral flag, by means of
"which not only the whole of their produce is
"carried to a market, but at charges little exceed-
"ing those of peace, while the British planter is
"burthened with all the inconvenience, risk, and
"expence, resulting from a state of war." The
Committee add, that "the advantages, which the
"hostile colonies derive from the relaxation of
"that principle which prohibited any trade from
"being carried on with the enemy's colonies by

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“ neutrals during war, which the enemy himself
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 “ may be in part estimated by reference to a state-
 “ ment of the imports into Amsterdam alone from
 “ the United States of America in the year 1806,
 “ amounting to 34,085 hogsheads of coffee, and
 “ 45,097 hogsheads of sugar, conveyed in 211
 “ vessels :” and it is supposed that the joint im-
 ports of coffee and sugar by Rotterdam and Ant-
 werp are nearly equal to those of Amsterdam.*

We may presume that allusion is made to our
 Maritime Rights by the speech from the Throne
 (on the 14th of August) in which the King ap-
 peals to his people “ to support him in every mea-
 “ sure which may be necessary to defeat the
 “ designs of his enemies, against the independence
 “ of his Majesty’s dominions, and to maintain,
 “ against any undue pretensions, and against any
 “ hostile confederacy, those *just rights* which his
 “ Majesty is always desirous to exercise with tem-
 “ per and moderation ; but which, as essential to

* It must not be inferred from this statement, that the imports
 into Antwerp constitute an addition to the foreign produce im-
 ported into Europe through Amsterdam or Rotterdam. The
 probability is that a considerable part of the import of colonial
 produce into Dutch ports, afterwards forms a portion of the im-
 port into France, particularly of the imports through those places
 which are on the northern frontier. Of 67,000,000 livres, the
 gross produce of the French customs in 1806, 26,000,000, were
 collected at Antwerp, Cleves, and Cologne.

“ the honour of his Crown and true interests of
 “ his people, he is determined never to surren-
 “ der.”

It is not only in the expedition to the Baltic, that administration have acted up to the sentiments professed in the King's Speech. The Gazette of the 22d of August contains instructions to our ships of war to detain, and bring in, after the expiration of six weeks, all vessels, trading under the neutral flags of Oldenburgh, Mecklenburgh, Kniphausen and Pappenburgh, unless those vessels be on a voyage to or from a British port. A similar spirit appears in an order respecting American ships, not built in America*.

From what has been stated respecting the imports of Amsterdam, it is obvious that a considerable consumption of West India produce takes place on the Continent. Manufactures from India and various products from North America and the Baltic, are also conveyed, by neutral carriers, into the ports of France and of the dependant states which surround her. The proper application, therefore, of our naval force, by checking these supplies, would afford the British colonists and manufacturers the fairest chance of entering the continental markets. The people of France must, then, receive our commodities, or suffer by

* Order 19th Aug. 1807.

privation : and it is only the pressure of war that will render them sensible of the blessings of peace. This pressure would be created by a measure that would, at once, destroy the foreign coasting and colonial trade of our enemies, which, it appears from the Report above quoted, they still carry on in their own vessels, that have been mortgaged to the Americans during the continuance of the war, and are to be returned to the French merchants within a few months after peace is concluded. "The honour of his Majesty's crown and true "interests of his people" require that such a system should be put an end to.

The question of peace must be preceded by the assertion of our Maritime Rights. France will, then, feel and suffer by the war. We cannot affect her by attacking her armies, or by combating her finances ; but the trident of the waves enables us to draw round her a magic circle, (as impassable as the land-belt which surrounds the king of Candy,) and to render her, during war, tributary to our merchants and manufacturers, for all the foreign produce which she and her dependants may chuse to consume. Preserving thus, in war, the sources of our naval power, prosperous and inviolate, we need not, in future negotiations for peace, seek for British safety from a *sine quâ non* in Sicily, or a Russian boundary in Istria. It will be sufficient to stipulate for such rights, territorial,

commercial, or political, as, in the event of any future war, will enable our maritime ascendancy to display itself with undiminished splendor; and to perpetuate those advantages which it has obtained for the country.

9th Sept. 1807.

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THE measure, recommended in the preceding pages, of interdicting all commerce between the enemy and neutrals, will be found, not only to be justifiable on precedent as well as principle, but to accord with the general views of British policy, and to promise the most beneficial consequences from its adoption.

The grand fundamental duty of the neutral is, “that he is not to relieve one belligerent from the infliction of his adversary’s force, knowing the situation of affairs on which the interposition of his act could have such a consequence:”* and two of the practical results of this duty have been that the neutral is neither permitted to traffick in any articles whatever, with ports, or coasts, blockaded by a competent force; nor to aid a belligerent by supplying him with contraband commodities. No specific enumeration, indeed, of what articles are contraband has, yet, been generally agreed on: but it is universally allowed that the neutral must not interpose; although the opinions of different countries are, and probably

* See Robinson’s Adm. Rep. vol. IV. p. 126.

ever will be, at variance as to what constitutes interposition; and it seems to be no less consistent with reason and equity, to restrain the neutral from any intercourse with the enemy that is calculated to support the “substance, sinews, arms, “and strength” of his military power,—his colonies, commercial marine, manufactures, or revenue, than to interdict the supply of those articles which are immediately necessary or useful for the purposes of war.†

Such general reasoning would have been fairly applicable at all times to justify the right contended for; although it is a right, which, however conformable to the principles of legitimate warfare, has, in point of fact, been seldom exercised by belligerents in its full extent. This forbearance may be satisfactorily accounted for. Europe, during the two last centuries, has consisted of

† The reasoning of Puffendorf applies no less forcibly to the right contended for, than to the right of search: “les Anglois “peuvent dire sans absurdité qu’ il leur est permis de faire tout “le mal qu’ils peuvent aux François avec qu’ils sont en guerre, “et par conséquent d’employer le moien le plus propre à les affoiblir, qui consiste à traverser ou empêcher leur commerce: “qu’il n’est pas juste que les peuples neutres s’enrichissent à “leurs dépens, et, en attirant à eux un commerce interrompu “pour l’Angleterre, fournissent à la France des secours pour “continuer la guerre. On ne doit pas souffrir qu’ils l’augmentent, à l’occasion de la guerre, au préjudice des Anglois.” *Le Droit de la Nature et des Gens, traduit par Barbéyrac. Liv. 8, c. 6, §. 8. note.*

various independent states, whose interests in commercial matters, in general, depended so much on reciprocal accommodation, that belligerents, even in those wars which were undertaken for commercial objects, considered it to be sound policy not to enforce this maritime right against neutrals. In the wars, too, in which this country was engaged, although in many instances the contests were long, bloody, and expensive, it does not appear that either party aimed at the compleat subjugation of his opponent. The state of Europe and the system of war are now wholly changed. There is now only one great substantive military power. The vanquisher of Austria, Prussia, and Russia, "bestrides the narrow world like a Colossus;" and threatens to overthrow the only remaining barrier to his ambition. The continental boundaries of his western empire are nearly traced out. A few petty states, indeed, still remain to be annexed to it: Britain, however, cannot save them; and her attention must, henceforth, be turned from the consideration of their subordinate interests to the providing for her own security. Indeed, the public voice seems in unison on this theme;

Sermo oritur, non de villis domibusve alienis;
 sed quod magis ad nos
 Pertinet, et nescire malum est, agitamus.

That the system of war is changed, and that the object of our implacable enemy is not the mere

aggrandizement of France, but the absolute conquest of England, is unequivocally demonstrated both by his language and his actions. The thought is ever uppermost in his mind, and breaks forth amidst "the pomp and circumstance" of continental victories, at periods when, it might be supposed, military glory had afforded it full employment. Whilst capitulating Austrians file off before him at Ulm, he sighs for "ships, colonies, and commerce;" and, whilst his legions are desolating Prussia, he issues his edicts from Berlin, that Britain shall be excluded from any further intercourse with the Continent. "In truth," (as the author of the "Dangers of the Country" justly observes,) "it is impossible that he should ever cease to regard our subjugation as the first and most necessary part of his policy. His throne cannot be stable, while civil liberty remains unsubverted in any part of Europe; and though freedom is every where the object of his hatred and dread, yet it is particularly terrible to him here. With such a neighbour as the British constitution, he knows that his military despotism can never cease to be invidious and odious in France."*

Nor are the plans of Napoleon against England, and the altered state of the Continent, the only

* P. 81.

points to be adverted to in the consideration of the proper system for this country to pursue in her present situation ; a situation, which, it must be recollected, is, (as the French Exposes very truly denominate it,) a maritime war. Other political changes, no less important in their bearings on the present contest, than the changes already noticed, have taken place within the memory of man.

Previously to the American Revolution, tea, sugar, coffee, spices, tobacco, cotton, furs, and various other products of Asia and America, (products which may now be considered as necessary articles of food, or manufactures,) were obtainable only by the intervention of European trade. They were all imported in European vessels, † and, by far the greater part, from European colonies ; the most important of which belonged to Great Britain, Holland, France, and Spain ; and the trade with those colonies was almost wholly carried on in vessels belonging to the mother country. In wars, therefore, between these powers, the infliction of the enemy's force was severely felt by the colonies of that belligerent whose maritime force was unable to protect them. But the possessions of France in North America, which furnished her West India islands with some part of the provisions

† That is, in vessels belonging to the subjects of European states.

and lumber they required, having been conquered by Great Britain, and the English colonies in North America, which supplied still more copiously both provisions and lumber for our sugar islands, having been declared independent, a material alteration has taken place in the commercial relations between Europe and the West Indies. For the accommodation of those colonies, and in consideration of an equivalent return, the United States have been permitted, by a relaxation of our maritime code, to continue, under certain restrictions, a trade, which they had formerly the right as British subjects to enjoy in its fullest extent. But if they are to claim the benefit of the ancient maxims of war, assented to by us with reference to the ancient state of Europe and its ancient relations with her colonies, they must place themselves in a situation to which those maxims will apply. This however is impossible : a new order of things has arisen to which they must submit. Their establishment as an independent maritime state, and their vicinage to the French colonies, which can thus obtain the means of existence, and of transmitting their produce to the mother country, justify Britain in revising her rules of warfare in such a manner as may render them as efficient for asserting her rights as they were in former periods, when the Continent consisted of various independent states, whose commerce with all parts of the world was carried on under European flags.

The other change to be adverted to, is one, which (most fortunately for the interests of Britain at the present crisis) has taken place in maritime affairs. From contending on nearly equal terms with the fleets of France, during the inglorious period of the American war, she has become the mistress of the ocean, by a series of naval triumphs, not more brilliant in their display of British valour, than decisive in their destructive effects on those means of annoyance, which the enemy appears most anxious to augment, as the best calculated to insure our fall; and the vigorous policy, which has placed the Danish fleet within our harbours, has extinguished the best hope of France of assailing us from the North.* It is probably no exaggeration to say that the British navy now exceeds, in the actual number of ships of war, as well as in efficient force, the aggregate amount of all the navies in the world.

Napoleon, however, still perseveres in the construction of fleets, being fully sensible that he shall derive from the acquiescence of Britain in the encroachments of neutral commerce, all those maritime advantages which are essential for the establishment of a naval power: he seems to be convinced, that, in deference to the clamours of

* Since the above was written, the escape of the Prince-Regent of Portugal from Lisbon has equally extinguished the hope of using the Portuguese fleet in assailing us from the South.

neutrals, we shall continue those relaxations of the vigorous system adopted by our ancestors, which have already proved so injurious to our commerce and our colonies; and probably anticipates the facility with which the rule of 1756 (which was sufficient before the emancipation of America to maintain our belligerent rights) would now be evaded, from the plea, to be asserted by the United States, that, even under that rule, they are entitled to carry on an accustomed trade with the West Indies. The principle, however, that neutrals shall not interpose to protect those national resources of the enemy, derivable from colonies, commerce, or revenue, which furnish the means of raising fleets and armies, on which only that rule is defensible, sanctions the adoption of a more extended rule: extended indeed, according to the new circumstances in which belligerents are placed; but directed to the same object, the prevention of unwarrantable interposition.

It was in this principle, no doubt, that the rule of 1756 originated, "that a neutral has no right to deliver a belligerent from the pressure of his enemy's hostilities by trading with his colonies in time of war in a way that was prohibited in time of peace," under which the prize courts of Great Britain in the seven years war condemned all vessels and cargoes engaged in the trade with French West Indies; a trade which they considered

to be unwarranted by the rights of neutrality, although the property captured might appear to belong to neutrals. This rule, it is obvious, was a modified exercise of the belligerents' right: the principle on which it is founded, being "that a neutral has no right to deliver a belligerent from the pressure of his enemy's hostilities by trading with him, or by any other contrivance whatsoever." The rule, therefore, of 1756, however admirable it may be, when contrasted with subsequent orders, is a relaxation of the belligerents' right.

During the American war our maritime code was "sicklied over;" and, on the ground that France meant, as a permanent system, to admit neutrals to trade with her colonies, a very general relaxation of the rule took place: but in the war of 1793 the rule was re-established by the instructions issued that year to ships of war and privateers, "to bring in all ships laden with the produce of any French colony, or carrying to them provisions or other supplies." This order, however, was revoked in January 1794 by instructions, directing only "the bringing in of West India produce coming directly from the French islands to any part of Europe:" and in 1798 a further relaxation took place; the new order being "to bring in ships laden with the colonial produce of the enemy, coming directly to any port in Europe, not being

“ a port of Great Britain, or of the country to
 “ which such ships, being neutrals, belonged.”
 The instructions issued in June 1803 were no less
 indulgent to neutrals. They say that, “ in con-
 “ sideration of the present state of commerce, his
 “ Majesty is pleased to direct the commanders of
 “ ships of war and privateers not to seize any neu-
 “ tral vessel carrying on trade directly between
 “ the colonies of the enemy, and the neutral
 “ country to which the vessel belongs, and laden
 “ with the property of inhabitants of such neutral
 “ country; provided that such vessel does not, on
 “ her outward voyage, supply the enemy with
 “ contraband, or trade with a blockaded port.”

Many of the ill effects of these relaxations of the
 rule of 1756 have been detailed in the Commons’
 Report, (already noticed,) respecting the West
 India Trade. They have not only been injurious
 to the property of the West India planters; but to
 the British fisheries in America; to the trade be-
 tween British America and the West Indies; the
 trade between Britain and the West Indies; and
 the West India free port trade; in which last the
 Americans have supplanted us in the supply of the
 enemies colonies with European manufactures,
 most of which, instead of being manufactures sent
 from this country to those free ports, are the manu-
 factures of Brabant, Holland, Germany, and

Russia, and are exported directly from those countries to America.*

The rule of 1756 was rendered, by the state of the colonies at that time, and the relative situations of the belligerents, completely efficacious. Canada belonged to France; and its exports to the West Indies, either in fish, flour, or lumber, were lawful prize: and the other parts of North America, which could furnish those articles, were under the control of Great Britain. Nor could the European neutral states, had they possessed any considerable quantity of exportable produce in lumber or provisions, have pleaded the right of accustomed trade, to justify their interposition in relieving the French colonies. Some advantages, indeed, were derived by those colonies from their intercourse with the Dutch island of St. Eustatia; But it appears from a memorial, (which Smollett has recorded in his history,) addressed to the French commander in chief by the French officers in Martinico, that the island was reduced to great distress in the third year of the war (1758).† “They represented that the

* See more particularly the evidence of Mr. Inglis. *Report on the Trade with the West Indies*, p. 52.

† It is not easy, from any documents before the public, to ascertain with what degree of vigour the rule of 1756 was enforced during the war: the fluctuating state of party politics at home, probably, in some degree, influenced its operation. If the present crisis should lead to the publication of official accounts of the maritime system of the different administrations in the seven

" trade with the Dutch was become their sole de-
 " pendence; that they could expect no succour
 " from Europe, by which they had been abandoned
 " ever since the commencement of the war; that
 " the traders vested with the privilege of traffick-
 " ing among them had abused the intention of the
 " general, and, instead of being of service to the
 " colony, had fixed an arbitrary price for all the
 " provision which they brought in, as well as for
 " the commodities which they exported: of con-
 " sequence the former was valued at as high a
 " price as their avarice could exact, and the latter
 " sunk as low in value as their own selfish hearts
 " could conceive: that the colony for two months
 " had been destitute of all kinds of provision;
 " the commodities of the planters lay upon their
 " hands; and their negroes were in danger of
 " perishing through hunger; a circumstance that
 " excited the apprehension of the most dreadful
 " consequences; as to slaves half starved, all kinds
 " of bondage were equal; and people reduced to
 " such a situation were often driven to despair,
 " seeking in anarchy and confusion a remedy
 " for the evils by which they were oppressed;
 " that the best provided of the inhabitants labour-
 " ed under the want of the common necessaries of
 " life; and others had not so much as a grain of

years war, the nation will, no doubt, find in them the strongest
 evidence of the wise counsels, and energetic conduct, of their
 favourite minister, the Earl of Chatham.

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" salt in their houses ; that there was an irrepara-
 " ble scarcity of slaves to cultivate their land ;
 " and the planters were reduced to the necessity
 " of killing their cattle to support the lives of
 " those who remained alive ; so that the mills
 " were no longer worked, and the inhabitants
 " consumed before hand what ought to be re-
 " served for their sustenance, in case of being
 " blocked up by the enemy. They desired, there-
 " fore, that the general would suppress the per-
 " missions granted to particular merchants, and
 " admit neutral vessels freely into their ports,
 " that they might trade with the colonists unmo-
 " lested and unrestrained. They observed that
 " the citadel of Port Royal seemed the principal
 " object on which the safety and defence of the
 " country depended ; as the loss of it would be
 " necessarily attended with the reduction of the
 " whose island : they, therefore, advised that this
 " fort should be properly provided with every thing
 " necessary for its safety and defence ; and that
 " magazines of provision as well as ammunition
 " should be established in different quarters of the
 " island."*

This deplorable situation of Martinico, which
 may fairly be ascribed to the operation of the rule
 of 1756, was the more remarkable, as France still

* Hist. of England, vol. V. p. 2, 8vo edit.

possessed her North American provinces,† whilst her numerous cruisers were distressing our trade,‡ and her powerful fleets were contending with the British squadrons for the sovereignty of the ocean.§

If the state of Martinico and Guadaloupe in 1807 were compared with their state fifty years ago, it would appear that, although separated from the mother country by a sea, on which not a single French man of war can be found, they owe to British complaisance the means of importing, through neutrals, all they want, and of exporting all they can sell. Far from being impoverished by warfare, both these islands are more flourishing than they were before the French Revolution, not only in produce, but in population; having, according to official documents, doubled their numbers since the year 1789.* War is to them the

† Quebec was taken in the latter end of 1759.

‡ The whole number of British ships taken by the enemy between the 1st of June, 1756, and the 1st of June, 1760, is stated at 2539: in which period the British cruisers captured 944 vessels. Smollett, B. 3, c. 13, §. 14.

§ They had, in Europe and Asia, above 50 serviceable sail of the line. The Toulon squadron of La Clue (who was defeated by Boscawen in Aug. 1759) consisted of 19 sail: and the Brest Squadron, under Conflans, (who was defeated by Hawke in Nov. 1759,) amounted to 21. Apché commanded 11 sail in the East Indies. Smollett, B. 3, c. 10, §. 47, 51, c. 12, §. 6.

* Extract from the *Moniteur*, in the London Newspapers of the 2d and 3d of September, 1805.

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assurance of prosperity ; for as dearness and cheapness are relative terms in commerce, although it costs more to bring sugar from Martinico or Cuba,* by America to Europe, than directly from those islands, yet the extra war-charges for freight and insurance sustained by the British exporter of sugars to the continental markets, render the conveyance of sugar to Europe through British, twice as expensive as through American, ports.† The ex-minister Talleyrand, if he should again turn his attention to the consideration of colonial policy will, probably, not omit to contrast the thriving trade of his master's sugar colonies with

* Cuba is stated by one author to have doubled its cultivation in the last war; (see *War in Disguise*;) and by another to have increased its produce of sugar from 10,000 hogsheads in 1792, to 140,000 hogsheads in 1806. (See *Spence's Radical Cause of West India Distress*.)

† See *Report on the Trade with the West Indies*, p. 13.

Charges of freight and insurance in the year 1806.

		£.	s.	d.	
From British West Indies by London to Holland	Freight	0	14	0	0 13 10
	Insurance	0	4	10	
					0 9 11
From Foreign West Indies by the United States to Holland	Freight	0	7	6	
	Insurance	0	2	5	
		Difference....			0 8 11
From British West Indies by London to the Mediterranean	Freight	1	0	0	1 6 0
	Insurance	0	6	0	
					0 13 6
From Foreign West Indies by the United States to the Mediterranean	Freight	0	9	6	
	Insurance	0	4	0	
		Difference....			0 12 6

the following description, given by an eminent merchant to a committee of the House of Commons, of the present state of our West India concerns:

“ Without immediately adverting to the inconveniencies to which merchants and opulent traders may be exposed from the non-payment of interest, and the deterioration of the securities they hold, I conceive the distress which already prevails, and which is daily increasing, exceeds and is of a different description from any arising from disappointment in commercial adventure. The parties interested in West India property, so far as I am concerned with it, are for the most part long established families, resident in Great Britian, who participate in the net produce; as, widows entitled to jointures, younger children entitled to interest on legacies, mortgagees, persons beneficially interested under marriage settlements, annuitants generally in small sums; all which parties are for the most part entitled to payment before the proprietor of the estate can appropriate any part of the produce to his own use; these payments have, to my knowledge, on the largest, and on some of the best, properties in the West Indies, fallen very generally into arrear since Michaelmas last;* and it is obvious, therefore, that the proprietor can have no means of defraying the ordinary expences of his family.

* i. e. Mich. 1806.

" A very remarkable instance is now before me,
 " of a gentleman possessing one of the largest
 " properties in the West Indies, whose estate,
 " subject to no incumbrances, did not produce in
 " the last year a sum equal to the amount assessed
 " on him for the property tax, on a return of the
 " produce for the three preceding years; and who
 " is now called upon to pay above 1000*l.* for his
 " tax, though it is improbable that even the present
 " year's crop will enable him to pay the amount;
 " yet he paid about 8000*l.* duty to government on
 " his last crop, and will pay as much on this.
 " The distress universally is become so great
 " among those wholly dependent on West India
 " concerns, that I am not aware that it would be
 " materially increased by the total annihilation of
 " the properties; and I conceive it to be an object
 " of the utmost importance, that some beneficial
 " change should be immediately effected."*

It may be said, that the evil will cure itself; that
 the planters now grow more sugar, even in the
 British colonies, than the British empire can con-
 sume; that, when the cultivation is reduced, the
 article will meet with an adequate price; and that
 similar inconvenience results to any other branch
 of agriculture, from overstocking the market.
 The West India trade, however, bears no analogy to

* *Report on the Trade with the West India Colonies*, p. 39.

other trades, nor is the sugar grower placed on the same footing with farmers in general. The corn grower, for instance, when the home price is what legislative wisdom deems low, is allowed the choice of foreign markets: but the sugar grower is restricted to go first to the home market. The circumstance of war is the peculiar feature of the case, both as it respects the interest of the planter and the commercial and naval interests of Great Britain. In peace time, it would be the duty of government not to contravene the ordinary maxims of trade, which leave demand and supply to find their proper level: but a part of the glut of the homemarket is certainly not created by the British sugar planters: and none of it can be ascribed to their imprudence, if their cultivation has not been increased beyond the wants of those markets, which it was reasonable for British subjects to expect the vigour of British councils would secure to them during war.

By the conquest of the French islands of St. Lucia and Tobago, and the Dutch settlements of Surinam, Berbice, Demerara, and Essequibo, and the consequent additional supply poured from thence into the home-market, the British government deprives the old sugar islands of the reciprocity they enjoyed under our colonial system.*

* "The means which she has adopted for securing to herself the trade of her colonies are, in many respects, more liberal

The quantity of sugar imported from the conquered Dutch settlements in the year 1801 was 299,805 cwt.; and on the average of the years 1799, 1800, and 1801, it was 140,812 cwt. The sugar exported from St. Lucia and Tobago to Great Britain, on the average of the same period, amounted to 121,053 cwt. yearly. The aggregate amount of our imports of sugar from the conquered colonies is probably equal to a seventh or eighth of the home consumption.

There can be little doubt that, if the great principles of our maritime policy be acted upon, the supply of the continent, from Britain, may be extended sufficiently to absorb all the surplus import of sugar not wanted for home consumption. From an examination of the annexed table* it will

“ than those which have been employed by other nations; and
 “ the restrictions which she imposes are not confined to the ports
 “ of her West Indian possessions, but extended with impartial
 “ justice to her own. Not only the restraint but the benefit is
 “ reciprocal. The mother country affords a ready market for
 “ the colony as the colony does for the mother country. What
 “ is called monopoly in this case is mutual. If England benefit
 “ by the exclusive supply, the colonies benefit by the highly
 “ favoured sale of their rum and sugar. The restriction which
 “ operates beneficially to the first is accompanied by the restric-
 “ tion which operates favourably to the last.” (See *Lord Sheffield's Strictures*, ed. 1806, p. 69.) The proper counterpoise to the inconvenience, experienced by the old colonies, by the introduction of the sugar from the conquered islands into the home market, is the prevention of neutral interlopers from interfering with the European market.

* From the *Report on the West India Trade*, pp. 72 and 73.

be seen that, notwithstanding the relaxation of those principles, a much greater proportion of sugar has been exported from this country since 1792 than in former wars. Various complex causes no doubt have influenced the export; but it is singular that periods of particular relaxation, during the last war, have been periods of diminished export. The war in 1793 commenced auspiciously, with good old English instructions to capture all produce coming from the enemy's colonies; and in 1794 the export doubled. Relaxation took place; and the next year the export fell off. Through "the dexterous and firm sagacity" of English enterprize, it gradually recovered it's tone, till 1798, when another relaxation of orders took place, and in the following year the export was reduced one half.

An Account
into Great Britain
the same
Sugar
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Trade.

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An Account

An Account of Sugar imported from the West India Colonies into Great Britain, in the following periods, and exported, in the same periods, to Ireland and other parts, expressing the Sugar in cwts. after reducing the refined into raw, on the principle of 34 to 20. (From the Report on the West India Trade.)

PERIODS.		IMPORTED.	EXPORTED.		
			To Ireland	To other Parts.	Total.
		Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
Annual	1765 inclusive	1,445,377	133,796	354,434	488,230
Average	1775 ditto	1,835,336	218,993	82,922	301,915
of Five	1785 ditto	1,579,537	157,217	157,513	314,730
Years to	1795 ditto	2,021,325	140,646	496,075	636,721
Annual	1806 ditto	3,389,734	145,480	1,058,336	1,203,816
Average					
of Six					
Years to					

An Account of Sugar imported from all parts into Great Britain in the following years, and exported.

YEARS.	IMPORTED.	EXPORTED.		
		To Ireland.	To other Parts.	Total.
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
1791	1,813,192	141,639	268,342	409,981
1792	1,989,230	117,254	510,383	627,637
1793	2,194,726	154,275	363,354	517,629
1794	2,519,181	163,743	866,044	1,029,787
1795	2,151,272	168,264	646,668	814,932
1796	2,240,299	144,446	541,792	686,238
1797	2,139,887	208,343	657,821	866,164
1798	2,699,864	176,325	1,046,987	1,223,312
1799	3,390,974	211,185	407,352	618,537
1800	3,164,474	353,775	1,298,777	1,657,552
1801	3,976,554	122,611	1,080,158	1,202,769
1802	4,297,079	182,896	1,863,872	2,046,768
1803	3,185,894	151,639	1,541,645	1,693,284
1804	3,248,306	162,728	941,209	1,103,937
1805	3,178,788	166,028	936,657	1,102,685
1806	3,815,175	134,802	878,633	1,013,435

It is not only for supplying the enemy's colonies with articles necessary for their existence that ships are freighted thither from the United States. It appears from the Admiralty Reports that ships of war have been exported and sold in the enemy's ports; and it is highly probable that neutral intercourse has much facilitated the equipment of the numerous privateers which annoy our trade in the West Indies. Naval stores, indeed, as a cargo, are contraband; but every neutral vessel being allowed for her own use a stock of gunpowder, pitch, spars, ropes, and other articles, the aggregate surplus supplies which neutral ships (for instance, 211 Americans which entered the port of Amsterdam last year) might convey to the enemy under the present system, must be very considerable.

If precedents be necessary to justify a measure, founded on the principles of reason and equity, and essential for our preservation, precedents may be found not only in the history of Great Britain, but in that of Holland, at a period when she was not less interested, or less able, to assert her belligerent rights than this country is at present. As early as the second year of Edward the Third (1328), in a charter of privileges to foreign merchants, "an instrument, which," Lord Liverpool observes,* "may well be considered as a sort of

* *In his Discourse on the Conduct of Great Britain respecting neutral Nations*, published in 1757.

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“ maritime regulation by which England meant
 “ to direct her conduct at that time on affairs of
 “ this nature,” the liberty of navigation was confirmed, and foreign merchants were allowed to carry their goods, whether purchased within the kingdom, or not, to any country they pleased, except to the King’s enemies; and, some offences being afterwards committed against this charter in the succeeding wars, it was again renewed in the same manner in the sixth year of this reign. In both these instances the exception is express that no trade whatsoever should be permitted with the enemy.

Nor are these the only instances deserving our notice on the subject. We may, from a reference to the annals of a reign, which the exploits of the British navy have peculiarly distinguished,

“ In pleasing dreams the blissful age renew,
 “ And call Britannia’s glories back to view;
 “ Behold her cross triumphant on the main,
 “ The guard of commerce, and the dread of Spain.”*

“ When Elizabeth was engaged in war with
 “ Spain she seized several vessels of the Hans-
 “ towns which were entering into the port of
 “ Lisbon; and she urged, among other arguments,
 “ the charter above mentioned in defence of her
 “ conduct: she was in this respect so satisfied of

* *Johnson’s London.*

“ the justice of her cause, that the threats of the
 “ German empire,* and other neutral powers, could
 “ not oblige her to relinquish her right.”†

Such was the conduct of two English princes who knew how to assert their rights, and who ruled their people with glory. May the reign of his present Majesty (which has already in duration exceeded that of Elizabeth, and will, we hope, exceed that of Edward) consolidate the invaluable rights which those monarchs asserted, and the naval ascendancy of Britain still enables her to maintain!—May the vigour of the nation be directed,

* The states of Germany have, once more, been enlisted, or rather impressed, into the service of the enemies of Britain, and may be expected to declaim as loudly against the assertion of our maritime rights, as the hired writers of the Spanish monarch did, two centuries ago, against the conduct of Queen Elizabeth. Lord Liverpool remarks that the virulent answer from Antwerp, a city under the dominion of Spain, to the Queen's declarations, “ seemed to be written (says Thuanus) per hominem Philippi “ partibus addictum, non tam pro libertate navigationis et in “ Germanorum causâ defendendâ quam in Hispanorum gratiam “ et ad reginæ nomen proscindendum.” We may truly repeat the comment of the noble author: “ this case need not be compared with our own at present: the resemblance is too “ obvious.”

† “ It is remarkable that Mons. de Thou, who was himself a “ great lawyer, and had long sat in the first court of judicature “ in France, even when he blames the conduct of the queen in “ this affair, passeth his censure upon it not as defective in justice but only in policy: in tam alieno tempore (says he) rerum “ prudentiores existimabant imprudenter factum esse â reginâ ab “ Anglis.” See *Lord Liverpool's Discourse*.

ere it be too late, to the overthrow of that insidious system which France has encouraged neutrals to contend for! If we pusillanimously permit that system to be confirmed, we shall, as the animated Sulpicius predicts, "lose all title to pre-eminence
 " and all claim to national distinction; the memory
 " of our past triumphs will serve only as an additional reproach to the humiliation of that
 " moment; and, instead of the unshaken confidence with which we now withstand the
 " aggressions of nations leagued against us, we
 " must receive the yoke of France, and submit in
 " despondency and shame to the ruin of our once
 " free, glorious, and happy country."

The following cases, from Lord Liverpool's treatise, will shew that Holland, in her days of maritime glory, considered it to be the right of belligerent to interdict all intercourse with the enemy.
 " At the beginning almost of that war, which the
 " United Provinces sustained in support of their
 " liberties, and even before their sovereignty was
 " as yet fully established, the people of Zealand
 " scrupled not to carry into their ports all such
 " neutral vessels as were conveying the effects of
 " the enemy, under pretended names, from Flanders into Spain; and the courts of admiralty of
 " that province adjudged the Spanish property to
 " be legal prize; and though they released the

“ neutral ships, they made them no compensation
 “ for their freightage*.”

Another precedent, still more applicable to the present period, may be found in the History of Holland. “ In the year 1599, when the government of Spain first prohibited the subjects of the United Provinces from trading to the ports of that kingdom, a liberty which had unaccountably been allowed them, from the commencement of their revolt to that period; the States General, in revenge, published a placart, forbidding the people of all nations to carry any kind of merchandise into Spain: the words of Grotius, in the relation he has given of this affair in his *Belgic History* †, are very full and express; ‘ per edictum,’ says he, ‘ vetant populos quoscunque ullos commeatus resve alias in Hispaniam ferre; si qui secus faxint, ut hostibus faventes vice hostium futuros.’ This placart they publicly notified to all kings and nations, for this reason, as the historian expresses it, ‘ ne quis inscitiam excusaret.’ The consequences of this notification deserve also our attention; the historian continues: ‘ paruit rex Galliae, ac si quis suorum sex intra menses in Hispaniam naviget, professus est privatum periculum fore.’ Henry the Fourth, at that time king of France, though delivered

* *Lord Liverpool's Discourse.*

† *Grotii Hist. Lib. 8.*

“ then from all his distresses, and arrived at the
 “ summit of all his power, scrupled not to submit
 “ to this placart, and gave up the interests of all
 “ his subjects, who should attempt within six
 “ months to transgress it: the historian concludes,
 “ ‘ cæteri (reges) silentio transmisere.’†

The energetic note delivered by his Majesty's commissioners to the American ministers, last year, appears to have contemplated the possibility of our being placed in such a situation, in consequence of the acquiescence of neutrals in the orders for the blockade of the British islands, issued by the French Government, from Berlin, on the 21st of November last, as would justify his Majesty in issuing
 “ orders to his cruisers to adopt towards neutrals
 “ any hostile system to which those neutrals
 “ should have submitted from his enemies.” The note observes that “ in those orders the French
 “ government seeks to justify or palliate its own
 “ unjust pretensions, by imputing to Great Britain
 “ principles which she never professed, and practices which never existed. His Majesty is
 “ accused of a systematic and general disregard of
 “ the law of nations, recognized by civilized states,
 “ and more particularly of an unwarrantable
 “ extension of the right of blockade: whereas his
 “ Majesty may confidently appeal to the world,
 “ on his uniform respect for neutral rights, and

† *Lord Liverpool's Discourse.*

" his general and scrupulous adherence to the law
 " of nations, without condescending to contrast
 " his conduct in these particulars, with that of his
 " enemy; and with regard to the only specific
 " charge, it is notorious, that he has never de-
 " clared any ports to be in a state of blockade,
 " without allotting to that object a force sufficient
 " to make the entrance into them* manifestly dan-
 " rous.

" By such allegations, unfounded as they are,
 " the enemy attempts to justify his pretensions of
 " confiscating, as lawful prize, all produce of
 " English industry or manufacture, though it be
 " the property of neutrals; of excluding from
 " his harbours every neutral vessel which has
 " touched at any port of his Majesty's dominions,
 " though employed in an innocent commerce;
 " and of declaring Great Britain to be in a state
 " of blockade, though his own ports and arsenals
 " are actually blockaded, and he is unable to sta-
 " tion a naval force whatever before any port of
 " the United Kingdom.

* The new French *theory*, respecting blockades, (as stated by Buonaparte to the city of Genoa,) is that no sea-port can be said to be blockaded, unless invested by sea and land: the new French *practice*, respecting blockades, is to declare a whole kingdom blockaded, as in the case of the British isles, although not a single port is invested by any naval force whatever.

" Such principles are in themselves extrava-
 " gant, and repugnant to the law of nations ; and
 " the pretensions founded on them, though pro-
 " fessedly directed solely against Great Britain,
 " tend to alter the practice of war among civili-
 " zed nations, and utterly to subvert the rights
 " and independence of neutral powers. The un-
 " dersigned cannot therefore believe that the
 " enemy will ever seriously attempt to enforce
 " such a system. If he should, they are confident
 " that the good sense of the American govern-
 " ment will perceive the fatal consequences of
 " such pretensions to neutral commerce, and that
 " its spirit and regard to national honour, will
 " prevent its acquiescence in such palpable viola-
 " tions of its rights, and injurious encroachments
 " on its interests.

" If, however, the enemy should carry these
 " threats into execution, and if neutral nations
 " should, contrary to all expectation, acquiesce in
 " such usurpations, his Majesty might probably
 " be compelled, however reluctantly, to retaliate
 " in his just defence, and to issue orders to his
 " cruisers to adopt towards neutrals any hostile
 " system to which those neutrals shall have sub-
 " mitted from his enemies. The Commissioners
 " of the United States will therefore feel, that, at
 " a moment when his Majesty and all the neutral

“ nations are threatened with such an extension
 “ of the belligerent pretensions of his enemies, he
 “ cannot enter into the stipulations of the present
 “ treaty without an explanation from the United
 “ States of their intentions, or a reservation on
 “ the part of his Majesty in the case above-men-
 “ tioned, if it should ever occur.

“ The undersigned, considering that the dis-
 “ tance of the American government renders any
 “ immediate explanation on this subject impossi-
 “ ble, and animated by a desire of forwarding the
 “ beneficial work in which they are engaged, are
 “ authorized by his Majesty to conclude the treaty
 “ without delay.

“ They proceed to the signature under the full
 “ persuasion that before the treaty shall be return-
 “ ed from America, with the ratification of the
 “ United States, the enemy will either have form-
 “ ally abandoned, or tacitly relinquished, his un-
 “ just pretensions, or that the government of the
 “ United States, by its conduct or assurances, will
 “ have given security to his Majesty that it will
 “ not submit to such innovations in the established
 “ system of maritime law; and the undersigned
 “ have presented this note from an anxious
 “ wish that it should be clearly understood on
 “ both sides, that without such abandonment of
 “ his pretensions, on the part of the enemy, or

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“ such assurances or such conduct on the part of
 “ the United States, his Majesty will not consider
 “ himself bound by the present signature of his
 “ Commissioners to ratify the treaty, or precluded
 “ from adopting such measures as may seem ne-
 “ cessary for counteracting the designs of his
 “ enemy whenever they shall occur, and be of
 “ such an extraordinary nature as to require ex-
 “ traordinary remedies.”

It is now nearly one year since this public official notice has been given to the United States of the conduct which his Majesty would feel himself authorized to pursue, in the event of the system of the enemy not being resisted by America. That country, therefore, cannot plead being taken by surprise, if after the Berlin orders of confiscation and blockade have, with the acquiescence of neutrals, been rigorously enforced in the various states of Europe which the fortune of war has placed under the power of the French Government, his Majesty should now adopt “ such measures, as
 “ may seem necessary for counteracting the designs
 “ of his enemy,” by issuing orders for seizing and bringing in all vessels engaged in commerce with any countries under the dominion or control of France.

The last and most important precedent, deserving our consideration, is the convention (already noti-

ced) entered into by Holland with Great Britain, in 1689, to prohibit totally the commerce of neutral powers with the enemy. We may answer all arguments against our following it, as the objections of the northern powers to the convention itself were answered, by adverting to the circumstances this country is placed in by the conduct of France, "and the mighty strength of that "ambitious power, which, if some extraordinary "effort is not made, will bring mankind under "its subjection*."

It is to be hoped that the various discussions which have been entered into with America and other neutral nations, the repeated applications from the different mercantile interests to government during the last and present war on matters respecting navigation and trade, and the acknowledged difficulties under which the country labours in consequence of neutral encroachments, must be produced a conviction in the minds of the leading men of the four administrations which have

* * Puffendorf, who owed his employments to one of the "northern crowns, was of opinion in this case against them, and "thought that the convention might be justified."—See *Lord Liverpool's Treatise*. Puffendorf's sentiments are detailed by Sir W. Scott in his judgment on the Swedish Convoy. *Robinson's Adm. Rep.* vol. I. p. 351.

been in office during the present war, (however they may differ as to the particular measures to be adopted,) that, under our present extraordinary circumstances, extraordinary remedies are necessary. May they cordially co-operate on the great point of asserting the maritime rights of their country!

It would not be difficult to shew that, in conducting the war on maritime principles, with a view to British objects only, Britain may reasonably expect a more successful termination to the conflict than she could hope for, when allied with feeble or faithless governments, whom she must subsidize during war, and consult in making peace. The First Consul's opinion, that England could not cope, single handed, with France, will, we may trust, be abundantly confuted, in a war which, it is probable, must now be carried on against confederated Europe, and possibly against America also.

The acquisitions of Great Britain in former wars, appear to be peculiarly important, in a military point of view, for prosecuting a maritime war. Gibraltar, Malta, the Cape, Ceylon, and various other foreign ports, are now of inestimable value, both as means of defence and aggression. Great Britain herself, lying alongside the Continent, is

enabled from her position to employ her resources more effectually for the annoyance of the enemy, than she otherwise could do. In the consideration of the advantages which this position affords her, she will probably not overlook her ancient rights of dominion in the British channel, a station, over which the crown of England has, from very remote antiquity, always asserted a special jurisdiction*: a jurisdiction which is, to the full, as justifiable as that asserted by Denmark over the passage of the Sound, or that claimed by Turkey over the Dardanelles.

Let the government model our maritime code after the precept contained in two lines, which are inscribed, or said to be inscribed, on the great gun at Dover Castle, called Queen Elizabeth's pocket piece;

" If you 'll load me well, and keep me clean,
" I 'll carry a ball to Calais green:"

and that code will, most assuredly, prove sufficient for the maintenance of British rights, not only in the narrow seas, but on the main ocean.

It will be seen by the annexed accounts respecting the trade of Great Britain with the

* See Sir Wm. Scott's Judgment in the case of the Swedish Convoy, in *Robinson's Admiralty Reports*.

United States*, that the only article imported, the loss of which would be of material consequence to Great Britain, is cotton; but, if the Americans should be prevented from exporting it to France, there can be no doubt that enough of it will find its way into this country. It is sufficient to remark, with respect to the export of British manufactures to the United States, that it almost wholly consists of indispensable articles of dress, which they will not be able to procure from any other country†. These accounts are important in other points of view: they shew the great accommodation which the commerce of the United States has given to the belligerent powers, opposed to Great Britain, by supplying them with colonial produce. The extension of this trade has been created by the wants of those belligerents, and cannot, upon any principle of commercial reasoning, be ascribed to the natural progress of an accustomed trade. Previously to the late war, the domestic produce exported from the United States exceeded the foreign merchandize very considerably. The former was to the latter

In 1784 as	9 to	1
1791 as	4 to	1
1792 as	3 to	1
1793 as	3 to	2 rule 1756 enforced, this year.
1794 as	162 to 168	rule 1756 relaxed this year.

* See *Appendix*, No. 1.

† The American non-importation act, which, after lying long dormant, is now threatened to be carried into effect, admits the importance of many articles received from Great Britain, more particularly coarse woollens, by exempting them from its operation.

In every subsequent year of the war the export of domestic produce fell below that of foreign merchandize. After the peace, the export of domestic produce predominated; and in 1805 the export of foreign merchandize was again the highest; and in the year ending on the 30th October, 1806, the exports of foreign merchandize was 60,828,236 dollars.*

A consideration of the various means of pressure on the enemy, which the adoption of the measure recommended would produce, would extend these observations to an unwarrantable length: but one very probable result must be adverted to—the destruction of the cotton manufactures, and the embarrassment of other manufactures in which dye woods, and other dyes, oil and indigo, are used. Very little tobacco, coffee, sugar, or pepper, can be imported into France or Holland, unless those countries consent (as the inhabitants will prove by clandestine importation that they do) to be supplied from England. The value of those articles (probably according to prices current) is stated at the following sums in the accounts of imports in

* See Mr. Marryatt's evidence before the Committee on the West India Trade, p. 18. The other accounts respecting the trade and shipping of the United States, are taken from statistical tables, published last year at Washington, under the title of *Economical*

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1800 and 1801, the latest which have been allowed to be published.

Value of Imports into France in the Years 1800 and 1801.

	1800	1801
Sugar Livres	46,856,000	51,510,000
Coffee	36,671,000	41,661,000
Cotton	35,172,000	49,950,000
Indigo	13,235,000	16,930,000
Oil for manufactures	13,121,000	26,350,000
Tobacco	11,657,000	10,176,000
Cochineal	9,462,000	3,560,000
Pepper and spices	9,250,000	6,902,000
Dye woods and mahogany ? (bois des isles)	(probably included in other articles.)	3,237,000
The total imports were	325,116,400	417,863,900

The adoption of cotton manufactures for clothing, is undoubtedly a great improvement in any country, and highly conducive to cleanliness, comfort, and health. In France, more especially, which now comprehends a large portion of territory in a warm climate, their use must have been found to have been peculiarly advantageous. The policy, however, of *using* them, is very different from that of *making* them. To acquire them by the latter mode, on as reasonable terms as they could be purchased from English manufacturers, (who from thirty years experience, and great mechanical skill, had reached a very high degree of perfection) was incompatible with the military career into which that country has entered. It should have been considered whether in the event of a war with Great Britain, France could reason-

ably expect, by her maritime power, to obtain the raw material from her own colonies, or at all events to secure it by the intervention of neutrals. Her views, however, of continental aggrandizement, have completely excluded her from being aided by neutrals in this, her most favoured manufacture. Her conquests have annihilated all supplies from European neutrals, for she has permitted no such states to exist; and her maritime code has led to a British system, which must deprive her of supplies from transatlantic neutrals. The annexed extracts from Chaptal's work on chemistry, and from the *Moniteur*, are decisive proofs that a very strong opinion is entertained of the impolicy of the attempt to rival the British cotton manufacture. Chaptal was some time minister of the interior to Buonaparte, and may, very possibly, have partly owed his dismissal to his opinions on this subject. The extracts from the *Moniteur* also shew the persevering anxiety of the French government to encourage a manufacture, which is supposed to employ 200,000 persons*; and as it appears that the annual consumption of cotton manufactures is estimated at 160,000,000 livres (about 7,000,000*l.* sterling) of which, probably, nearly a third is imported†; it is supposed by the

* In 1800, the Import of cottons manufactured was 24,000,000 livres; and in 1801, 42,940,000 livres.

† In the petition of the calico manufacturers and printers of the county of Lancaster to the House of Commons in 1785,

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government, that an extensive career may be opened to French industry, by the regulations, of prohibition and encouragement; those of prohibition are intended to prevent the competition of British cottons, however comparatively cheap they may be; and those of encouragement are to promote, by bounties, the growth of cotton in France, and the exportation of manufactured goods.* These are new experiments which require means far different from military achievements to ensure their success. Great Britain, indeed, cannot prevent the sun from shining, and the rain from falling, in France; but the cheapness of her superior manufactures will counteract the benefits of climate, and her naval ascendancy will prescribe what bounds she pleases to continental exports. One exception, it may be admitted, must be made: France cannot be obstructed by Great Britain, either in her export of produce and manufactures, or in her import of new materials, by land carriage, from the dominions of her allies or dependants. Her last supply of raw cotton it is believed was obtained in this way, and brought on the backs of mules from Lisbon: and she may probably acquire, at a great expence, a further quantity from Tur-

on the adjustment of the commercial intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland, it was stated that the cotton manufactures employed upwards of 500,000 persons.

* See the various papers respecting the French cotton manufacture, in *Appendix B*.

key, by land carriage through Germany. The export trade seems also intended to be carried on by a similar channel. In an official report of the date of last September, which boasts, that, although individual interests have suffered, complete success has attended the prohibition of English manufactures, it is stated that the export of French goods has followed the course of their victorious armies.* This probably alludes to a new commercial intercourse with Russia, which it may be presumed is (like our Canadian fur trade with the Indian tribes) to be carried on by the conveyance of goods, partly by land, and partly by water. These and similar expedients we may laugh to scorn; and console ourselves, under whatever obstructions continental prohibition may present, that victorious ascendancy by sea is far more likely than conquests by land to extend the advantages derivable from the exportation of manufactures.

* Notre exportation suit maintenant avec facilité les chemins ouverts par la victoire. See *Appendix B*.

(Part the third.)

SINCE the two preceding parts were first published, several Orders of Council have been issued, for extending the restrictions of blockade to all ports and places of countries at war with Great Britain, and of countries from which the British flag is excluded; and all ships found trading (after due notice or information) to or from those ports or places are, together with all produce or manufacture on board, (British manufactures excepted,) declared to be lawful prize. That neutrals, however, may have the opportunity of furnishing themselves with colonial produce for their own consumption and supply, the direct trade of countries, not at war with Great Britain, to and from the enemy's colonies, is left open; and neutrals are, also, allowed to carry on other branches of trade with the enemy's colonies, and the different parts of Europe, not wholly blockaded, (provided such trade be carried on from the ports of his majesty's dominions or of his allies,) in articles permitted, and under the regulations mentioned, in the orders.

On the right of Great Britain to issue such instructions for regulating, as in point of fact they do, the navigation of the sea, and the policy of issuing them, it is unnecessary here to expa

tiate. The principles which justify retaliation on the enemy by measures which, though in their operation injurious to neutrals, are still obvious necessary measures of self-defence, are clear and unequivocal. The conviction in the public mind, (a conviction which has preceded, and will not be lessened by, the discussions in Parliament) affords the grateful pledge, that the nation will patiently await the result of the system adopted by Ministers, in conformity with principles avowed, and partially acted on, by their predecessors. The same just sense of the necessity of recurring to adequate means of defence and preservation, which induced the latter, at the end of 1806, to reserve the right of acting in a way that must necessarily be injurious to neutral commerce, abundantly justifies their successors, under circumstances no less imperious, in carrying that right into effect.

The primary object of the Orders in Council appears to be to inflict a pressure on the enemy, which, it is probable, they will do in various ways.

1. A pressure on the enemy's colonies will be created, by restricting the Continent, the chief market for their produce, to such supply of colonial produce as it may be content to receive from Great Britain.

2. The interference with the export by neutrals of manufactures from the Continent, will create an additional pressure on those colonies.

3. France and her dependants will be subject to pressure, from privations affecting their revenue, their manufactures, their subsistence, and their naval stores.

The difficulty of acquiring cotton, it may be presumed, will occasion a considerable defalcation in the French customs ; as a new duty on raw cotton imported, of 60 francs per quintal* has been imposed with the view of supplying a deficiency of more than £.400,000 a year in that branch of revenue† : and the cotton manufacture itself, the branch of industry most favoured by the French government, is peculiarly exposed to injury from our maritime ascendancy. Other manufactures have already been noticed, which must suffer essentially. Of the various articles of food and consumption, in which privation will be severely felt by the inhabitants of France, and of the countries under her control, sugar, coffee, and tobacco, may be mentioned as the principal ; and, with respect to naval stores, there are various articles, which though not commonly enumerated under the title of contraband, are so useful, in the equipment of ships of war, or in facilitating military operations by sea or land, that the Orders of Council which interdict their export by neutrals to the enemy, except under the sanction of the British government, cannot

* Nearly equal to the English Cwt. of 112 lbs.

† See Appendix B. No. 7.

be considered as a departure from the plain principles of self-preservation ; principles, which have often, in particular circumstances, held money, provisions, timber, cordage, leather, and many other commodities, to be contraband of war. Pressure on the enemy appears, therefore, to be the leading object of the Orders of Council. The creation of a British Emporium for foreign produce, and the regulation of neutral exports by new revenue laws, are very subordinate parts of the measure. Viewed only with reference to the fiscal or commercial advantages which might be expected to result from its operation, it would be entitled to little commendation, for it must press hard on America, the best customer of Great Britain. Her asperity may be increased. It should, however, be recollected, that the origin of that asperity, which has long existed, may be traced to the just exercise of those belligerent rights, particularly the right of search, which Great Britain has evinced her determination never to abandon. If that asperity will permit America dispassionately to examine the Orders of Council, she must be convinced that they present the only rational mode of carrying on the war with vigour against an enemy, whose projects are directed equally against the independence of the new and old world. What better course, what more efficacious means, can be pursued to check the unwarrantable pretensions of

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a military government, which aspires to universal dominion, than to prove to it by the injury we can inflict, that the amity of Great Britain is essential to secure the re-establishment of internal prosperity in France? Visionary indeed would be any new attempt, under the present circumstances of Europe, to re-establish a connexion with the disjointed members of the subjugated continent. But if it be admitted that the promotion of manufactures, and the consumption of colonial produce, are still attended to in France and her dependencies, and that their progress in social comfort materially depends on commerce, it is obvious that the power which Great Britain possesses to obstruct that progress is a formidable instrument of hostility. Modern warfare is not confined in its operations to the conflicts of fleets and armies: the reduction of a belligerent to what his opponent considers as the proper state for the re-establishment of the relations of peace and amity is, now, as often attempted in the custom-house as in the field of battle. Such, too, is the singular state of the countries now at war, that we are as unlikely to contend with the French Armies as they are to oppose British Fleets. On both sides the contest is chiefly distinguished by those effects, to which their revenue, their commerce, or their manufactures, are exposed.

It must be readily admitted that in all these

respects war creates a pressure on this country ; but is none felt by France ? Is it not the opinion of many of her most intelligent statesmen that her cotton manufacture is exposed to great embarrassment from a maritime war ? Is it not from a conviction of the existence of this pressure, that many of them have acknowledged the necessity, recognized indeed in words by their emperor* of a "solid peace" with England ? and do not the Orders in Council present the best chance of inducing Buonaparte to explain the term "solid peace" in a way more accommodated to British understandings and feelings than has recently been done in a Spanish commentary, which conceives it to be such a peace as "would reduce the British Cabinet to abdicate its supremacy over the seas ?†"

The enemy appears to have reasoned in this way. Persuaded that obstructions to the commerce of Great Britain were calculated to make her feel the pressure of war, he had, long antecedently to the Orders of Council, adopted the most efficacious measures, within the grasp of military power, to exclude our merchants from all intercourse with European markets.

As a system, therefore, of just retaliation on France, the Orders of Council may be expected

* In his message to the senate ; from Berlin, the 21st Nov. 1806.

† See the King of Spain's decree against England (dated January 1808) in Cobbett's Pol. Reg. 13 Feb. 1808.

to be effectual ; but they do not appear to comprehend all that is necessary to be superadded to our existing plans of defence, to place the security of Britain on a firm basis. She has long been accustomed to draw from foreign countries many articles required for subsistence, manufactures, or naval stores. Which of them, and to what extent, will she be able to draw from a British source, if a confederate world becomes unwilling to supply them ? What branches of industry are most exposed to risks from their prohibitory system of commercial hostility ? These are questions which have certainly not escaped the consideration of a vigilant administration ; and satisfactory answers, it is to be hoped, will be found in measures to facilitate internal improvement being submitted to the legislature whenever the more splendid, though perhaps not more important, subjects of the Copenhagen Expedition and the Law of Nations are disposed of. There is, probably, no political question, which at this time deserves more serious investigation, than what is the properest mode of securing from time to time a competent stock of those indispensable commodities which have hitherto been furnished to us by foreign countries. To understand our difficulties in this respect, is the first step to overcome them. Our principal wants are enumerated in the following list, and some suggestions for supplying them are

subjoined ; under the possibility that they may be not wholly without use, and induce others better qualified to appreciate both the active and dormant resources of the country, to point out, in a more detailed manner, the intimate connexion between its industry and its independence.

SUBSISTENCE	{	Corn and other Grain, principally Oats, for Great Britain —Provisions in general, for the West India islands— Wine, Spirits and Fruits.
NAVAL STORES	{	Hemp Pitch and Tar Timber.
MATERIALS OF MANUFACTURES	{	Hides and Skins Tallow Flax, Linen-Yarn and Linseed Silk Wool.

CORN.

IT is unnecessary to refer to periods of scarcity during the last war, in which upwards of thirty millions were expended in the purchase of foreign corn, to prove that the annual ordinary consumption of grain, used for food or other purposes, far exceeds the average annual produce of the kingdom. Adequate proof of this fact may be derived from the parliamentary accounts of the three years ending on the 5th of January 1807, a

period in which no very extraordinary demand for foreign supply was created by bad harvests at home.

The official value of this branch of expenditure was as follows :

IMPORTS*.			
Years.	Northern European produce. (Corn and Grain.)	American and Colonial produce. (Wheat and Flour.)	Total Value.
	£.	£.	£.
1804	923,696	23,457	957,153
1805	1,534,243	25,820	1,560,063
1806	318,352	110,658	429,010
			2,956,226

EXPORTS.			
	European produce. (Wheat re-exported.)	British produce. (Corn and Flour.)	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
1804	55,215	158,67	213,582
1805	104,228	63,295	167,523
1806	7,646	78,481	86,127
			467,232

The value of the corn exported being deducted from the value of the corn imported, the balance against Great Britain for the above three

* The rates per centum to be added to the official value of corn, as well as that of various other articles mentioned in the following pages, in order to produce the real value, are stated in the Appendix D.

years was £2,488,994, or (on the average) £829,664 a year official value. The real value probably exceeds a million.*

A great addition to the amount of British expenditure for corn or flour might be made by taking into the account the corn trade between Great Britain and Ireland, the balance of which is much in favour of the latter country.†

* Mr. Oddy, in his work on European Commerce (p. 618) gives the following statement of the official and real value on the average of five years to 1803 inclusive, of the undermentioned articles, imported into Great Britain.

Articles.	Official value on the average of the years 1799, 1800-1, 2 & 3.	Estimated first cost on the average of these five years.
	£.	£.
Corn	1,780,070	3,500,000
Flax, rough	653,752	1,300,000
Hemp, rough	545,292	1,600,000
Iron	354,180	700,000
Linseed	114,137	500,000
Tallow	499,095	1,700,000
Tar	126,526	300,000
Wood	515,923	1,500,000
Yarn, linen	449,557	500,000
Total	5,038,532	11,600,000

Pitch is included in the estimated, though not in the official, value.

According to Mr. Arthur Young, 12,220,219 quarters of wheat have been imported from 1781 to 1806. See *Cobbett's Political Register*, vol. xiii. p. 300.

† See the *Parliament's account of the Corn trade, between England and Ireland*, (ordered to be printed 7th July 1806,) and *between Scotland and Ireland* (ordered to be printed 2d Feb. 1807.)

When however it is considered that the cultivation of one island in order to supply the wants of the other is a common benefit, that the corn trade between them is more conducive to the interests of navigation and naval power than a corn trade in foreign ships, and that commercial intercourse is well calculated to assist in promoting a cordial union, and compleat identity of interests between both parts of the empire, the dependence on Ireland for corn cannot be deemed an evil to be remedied, any more than the dependence of one English district on the superabundance of another. The export of corn, however, from Ireland, is deserving of attention in a review of the wants of Great Britain, the foreign supply of which may be obstructed by the decrees of Buonaparte in Europe, or by non-exportation acts in America. Whatever measures may be in contemplation for advancing the internal prosperity of the sister country, her agriculture, the great basis of her wealth, we may confidently hope, will not be forgotten. Her export of oats (the grain which is so inadequately supplied by the culture of Great Britain) will no doubt be much increased if the high price of that article and the difficulties of procuring it from the Baltic should continue.

Ireland is well adapted from its soil and situation not only to supply the deficiency of the corn produce of Great Britain; but to co-operate

with the British North American Colonies, (in the event of a rupture with the United States) in furnishing grain or flour as well as other provisions to the West India Islands*.

The Committee of Privy Council in their Report on the Sugar Colonies in 1784 expressed their opinion that the West Indies might obtain salted beef and pork in plenty of a superior quality, and (all circumstances considered) on cheaper terms from Great Britain and Ireland than from any part of North America, and that dried and pickled fish, particularly herrings, of a superior quality to any in America, might also be fur-

* The following Articles of provision weer exported from Ireland to the West Indies in the year 1804.

Articles.	Quantity exported.	Value. (Official.)	Duties paid.
		£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Aqua vitæ	4,978 Gallons	746 14 —	3 6 2
Bacon, Hams.....	54 $\frac{1}{4}$ Cwts.	81 7 6	7 1 5
Beef	17,932 Barrells	31,381 — —	2,792 13 9
Beer	6,134 Barrells	3,067 — —	304 4 7
Bread	1,803 Cwts.	1,081 16 —	36 — —
Butter	19,146 Cwts.	40,685 5 —	4,175 4 11
Cheese	8 Cwts.	13 — —	— 10 10
Corn, Oats	741 Barrells	277 17 6	— — —
Herrings.....	2,659 Barrells	2,659 — —	148 17 6
Ling	42 $\frac{1}{2}$ Cwts.	42 10 —	1 16 7
Salmon	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ Tons	50 — —	4 4 —
Hogs-lard	56 Cwts.	84 — —	14 8 10
Flour	585 Cwts.	546 — —	5 6 3
Oat-meal	10 Cwts.	3 — —	— — —
Pork	15,220 Barrells	22,830 — —	2,644 7 2
Potatoes	133 $\frac{1}{2}$ Tons	267 — —	16 17 4
Salt	60 Bushels	3 15 —	— 9
Tongues	1,680 Dozens	1,050 — —	189 13 —

Account ordered to be printed 11th of April 1805.

nished in abundance by Great Britain and Ireland.* The observations of another Committee of Privy Council in 1791, on this subject, are no less deserving of attention at the present moment: " It has (they say) been found by experience, " that the British Islands in the West Indies " become every year less in want of the provi- " sions and lumber, which they have hitherto " obtained from the countries of the United " States; and a considerable quantity of provi- " sions is now produced in some of these is- " lands, particularly in the island of Jamaica. " Both provisions and lumber are now sent to " a large amount from Great Britain, as well as " from the remaining British Colonies in Ame- " rica, and provisions from Ireland† and it can- " not be doubted, that the provisions and lum-

* See *Collection of Papers on Navigation and Trade*, (printed in 1807) p. 26.

† The present export of Provisions from the United Kingdom appears from the following account to form a considerable proportion of the whole quantity received by the West Indies.

Exported to the British West Indies in 1806.	From the United Kingdom.	From the British Continental Colonies.	From the States of America.	From other Countries.
Corn	238,203	2,578	386,256	1,214 Bushels
Flour.....	8,581	981	227,410	3,072 Barrels
Rice	50	—	11,100	46 ditto
Beef and pork	56,765	1,555	39,226	244 ditto
	365	12	452	— ditto
Fish, dry	4,637	113,937	144,968	4,568 Quintals
Fish, pickled	55,306	36,741	47,845	2,372 Barrels
Butter	56,908	337	6,593	171 Firkins
Cows & oxen	12	2	4,330	802 Number
Sheep & hogs	—	—	3,388	309 ditto

Account ordered (by the Lords) to be printed, 15th Feb. 1808.

“ber, imported from the United States into the
 “West India Islands, tend to diminish the im-
 “mediate intercourse, as well between these
 “islands and the British dominions in Europe,
 “as between the said islands and the remaining
 “British Colonies in America. Whether it may
 “ever be proper, all circumstances considered,
 “to put further restraints on the imports from
 “the countries belonging to the United States
 “into the West India Islands, is a point, which
 “it is not necessary at present to decide. The
 “policy of Great Britain in this respect, will
 “depend on future contingencies.”*

WINE AND SPIRITS.

Wine and Spirits form a considerable branch
 of import ; and although it is not to be expected,
 in the present state of society, that the country
 will wholly dispense with the former of these
 articles, it is probable that the subjugation of
 Portugal, from which the chief supply of wine
 has hitherto been obtained, will lead to the revi-
 sion of that system, which, from political motives,
 has, for a century, favoured the consumption of
 port in preference to the wines of France.

Whatever advantages the Methuen treaty may
 have conferred on this country by increasing the
 intercourse between Great Britain and Portugal,

* *Collection, &c.* p. 121.

and extending the consumption of British manufactures in South America, it has been, not more frequently than truly, remarked, that its stipulations in favour of woollens did not give them the same advantage over the manufactures of other nations which were secured for port wines. The treaty, as to its terms, may be considered as deficient in fair reciprocity; and the indirect advantages resulting from it, in the amity which has subsisted between the two countries for one hundred years, will not be very highly valued by those who advert to the expence and other difficulties, which this nation has experienced, from the burden which that amity imposed on her of supporting a very weak ally. The emigration therefore of the House of Braganza to the Brazils may be hailed as an auspicious event for Great Britain. The principles of trade are better understood than they were in the reign of Queen Anne; and it may be presumed that, although the circumstances which have placed the fortunes of the Portuguese monarchy under our protection may eventually subject us to the payment of a subsidy, the usual malady of European connexion, we shall not consider a Methuen treaty as the best restorative.

The following is the official value of wines and foreign spirits imported into Great Britain in three years.

	1804.	1805,	1806.
	£.	£.	£.
Wines, Portugal ..	245,423	494,699	490,849
— Spanish and all other sorts }	210,968	272,341	241,570
Spirits, Geneva	35,190	50,439	40,508
— Brandy	128,210	404,189	205,432
— Rum	245,510	327,043	327,122
Of which the amount re-exported was,			
Wines, Portugal ..	39,554	34,986	44,644
— Spanish and all other sorts }	47,321	44,539	98,313
Spirits, Geneva	142	18,793	17,036
— Brandy	10,982	59,290	119,897
— Rum	335,920	246,846	290,923

Before the acquisition of the Cape of Good Hope and Madeira, Great Britain did not, among her numerous possessions in different parts of the globe, possess any place from which wine was produced. Madeira, however, makes about 25,000 pipes of wine (of 120 gallons each) of which a large portion is consumed by British subjects. The practice lately introduced of supplying Madeira or Teneriffe wines instead of spirits to the seamen in ships of war, much enhances the value of a settlement, without which we should be more dependent than we are, on foreign countries for this beverage. The Cape does not at present possess any staple commodity in sufficient abundance, to enable it to carry

on an extensive trade with Europe,* and no produce appears better adapted than the vine to render it a flourishing colony: and if Government proposes (as it was supposed, a year or two ago, they meant to do) to encourage the agricultural improvement of the Cape, they cannot proceed in any way, less exposed to unproductive expence, and more likely to confer permanent benefit both on the colony and on Britain, than by promoting the raising such produce as will not interfere with British produce, and find a ready market in this country.

It is stated by Mr. Barrow that "the grapes, "in general, that are produced at the Cape, "are not inferior to those of any country," and that "there can be little doubt that the wines "expressed from them might by proper management be made to rival the best European "wines.*" No kind of produce there so well repays the labour of the farmer as the culture of the grape, and it is an additional inducement to favour this branch of industry that it appears well calculated to promote the happiness of the persons engaged in it. "The wine-growers at the "Cape are a class of people who, to the blessings of plenty, add a sort of comfort which is

* To this circumstance may be ascribed its slow increase in population, notwithstanding the abundance of the means of subsistence.

† *Travels in Southern Africa*, vol. i. p. 65; vol. ii. p. 72.

“ unknown to the rest of the peasantry. They
 “ have not only the best houses and the most
 “ valuable estates, but, in general, their domestic
 “ economy is managed in a more comfortable
 “ manner than is usually found among the coun-
 “ try farmers. Most of them are the descen-
 “ dants of the French families who first intro-
 “ duced the vine. Their estates are mostly
 “ freehold, in extent about 120 English acres,
 “ and the greater part is employed in vineyards
 “ and garden grounds.*”

Brandy, also, by the introduction of proper distillatory apparatus, might be rendered an important commodity in the export trade of the colony†, and the raisins are of so good a quality, and can be afforded at so reasonable a rate, that in all probability (according to Mr. Barrow) they will hereafter form a considerable article of export‡.

FLAX AND HEMP.

It is unnecessary, at this period, to enlarge on the national advantages which would result from raising within the British Empire the two valu-

* Vol. i. p. 291.

† Vol. ii. p. 291.

‡ Vol. i. p. 297. The official value of raisins and currants imported into Great Britain in the following years was

	1804.	1805.	1806.
Raisins	£.69,863	£.103,674	£.60,967
Currants	74,019	135,349	66,464

able materials of hemp and flax, to such an extent as would nearly supply the whole demand of those articles for naval stores and other manufactures. The only consideration on the subject, on which a difference of opinion may be expected to arise, is, what part of the empire is, under all circumstances, the best suited for furnishing either hemp or flax. They may be raised in abundance, not only in Great Britain, but in (at least) five other distinct parts of the British dominions; in Ireland, in Canada, at the Cape of Good Hope, in India, and (if the distance were no objection) in the colony of New South Wales. A few remarks will be offered with respect to their relative advantages.

In the present state of British agriculture, with an inadequate home supply of grain, and an increasing population, it may be doubted whether it would be expedient to apply any part of our arable, or even of our waste, lands, to the production of hemp or flax; but in various points of view Ireland appears better adapted than England or Scotland for supplying a large portion of the demand for these articles. It is, not only from containing immense tracts of moors and mosses susceptible of the highest cultivation, that Ireland is well adapted to raise hemp at a small expence; but her abundant population,

which is not fully employed,* seems to designate that country for undertaking, on a large scale, a culture, which must be followed by the various operations of gathering the crop, rippling or separating the seed from the stalks, steeping in water, drying, bruising, or beating, skutching and heckling: Ireland is already conversant with this branch of agriculture: the manufactures of hemp and flax have long been considered there as proper objects of national encouragement: and the raw material of the latter is raised there in considerable quantities. The culture of hemp has this advantage over most other branches of agriculture, that the tithe is restricted to 5s. an acre,† and barren heaths, moory ground, mountain, bog, moss, and lands taken in from the sea, lakes or rivers, improved into arable, are exempted from all tithe for seven years.‡ Flax and hemp dressers are free to follow their trades in cities and towns corporate; and flax and hemp

* The systematic emigration from Ireland to America, which takes place every year, can only be checked by bringing into effect the dormant resources of the country. It is stated that "from 1803 to July 1804 no less than 27,000 Irish had emigrated." *Oddy's European Commerce*, p. 569.

† By an act passed in 1788, the 28 Geo. 3. c. 29, (Irish Statutes.) The Irish acre is about an acre and three-quarters English. Flax is subject to indefinite tithe in Ireland; but in England, the tithe on both flax and hemp is restricted to 5s. the acre, by the 11th and 12th Wm. 3. c. 16.

‡ 5th Geo. 3. c. 9. 33d Geo. 3. c. 25. (Irish Statutes.)

are exempted from various tolls.* Premiums have from time to time been given by the Irish legislature for the encouragement of the growth of hemp and flax in Ireland ; and there can be no doubt that, if measures be now adopted to secure the home market to the growers of these articles for a reasonable period, such extended cultivation and improved management will shortly take place as will render Britain independent of foreign countries for these raw materials of her manufactures.

The making of linen yarn would probably accompany the growth of the material. The yarn is chiefly furnished by the countries that produce the flax ; and we may be confident that, if the latter were produced in abundance in the British dominions, our capital and machinery would create such an extension of the manufacture of linen yarn as to supersede the necessity of import.

The British colonies in North America may also undertake the culture of hemp with every prospect of success. When however it is considered that its management requires much manual labour, that the population in these dependencies is small, and that the danger of their being severed from the British crown in consequence of the increasing power of the United States is

* By 3 Geo. 3. c. 34. (Irish Statutes).

not inconsiderable, a prudent policy will rather promote the acquisition of hemp from some European part of the British dominions, or (if a portion must be sought from a distant source) from such of her colonies as can be adequately protected by her maritime power ; and in this point of view, the Cape may be considered as more secure than Canada. Hemp seems to be not less likely, if its growth be encouraged, to become a staple article of produce in that settlement than the one already mentioned. Mr. Barrow, in enumerating the different products of the Cape, observes, that the “ facility, with which
 “ the cultivation of the different kinds of hemp
 “ for cordage and canvas may be carried on to an
 “ unlimited extent, is that which, in a commercial point of view, is likely hereafter to render
 “ the colony most valuable to the state on which
 “ it may be dependent. When sown thick on
 “ the ground as in Europe, it grows exactly in
 “ the same manner, ascends to about the height
 “ of eight feet, and gives to all appearance a
 “ fibre of equal strength and tenacity ; and it
 “ requires very little trouble in keeping clean
 “ on the ground. The different plants of India,
 “ that are generally cultivated there for the purpose of hemp, have been found to grow as
 “ well, in every respect, as in their native soil.*

* *Barrow's Travels*, vol. 1, p. 408.

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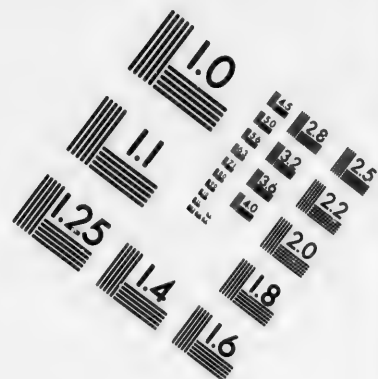
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Whether it be determined to encourage the cultivation of hemp in Ireland, in America, or at the Cape, some time must elapse before an adequate supply can be obtained from any of those countries. Happily, however, for Britain, her present stock of naval stores is considerable, [] bably equal to two years consumption; and within that period an abundant import of East India hemp may be expected. But the bulkiness of this article renders it improbable that it ever can be obtained on reasonable terms through the intervention of the East India Company. The actual expence of freight from India in war time is three or four times the amount of freight from the Baltic.

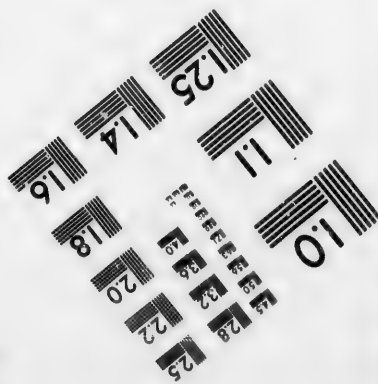
The same objections of distance and freight, which apply to India, apply to New South Wales; and, notwithstanding the flattering accounts which have been given of the New Zealand flax, which has been found in abundance in Norfolk Island, its use will probably be confined to the domestic manufactures of the colony, for which it has already been found to answer.*

* Among the productions of New Zealand Captain Cook mentions "a plant that serves the inhabitants instead of hemp and flax, which excels all that are put to the same purpose in other countries. Of the leaves, with very little preparation, they make all their common apparel; and of these they make also their strings, lines, and cordage for every purpose, which are so much stronger than any thing we can make with
"hemp,





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Were there any reasonable grounds for supposing that the period cannot be long before Great Britain may supply herself, with as much ease as before the French revolution, with naval stores, and other articles of essential importance, from the countries on the Continent from which she has been accustomed to receive them, it might be wisdom to content ourselves with temporary expedients sufficient to prevent the evils of privation during the war, without aiming at securing a permanent supply of those articles

“ hemp, that they will not bear a comparison. A plant which
 “ with such advantages might be applied to so many useful and
 “ important purposes would certainly be a great acquisition to
 “ England, where it would probably thrive with very little trouble,
 “ ble, as it seems to be hardy, and to affect no particular soil;
 “ being found equally in hill and valley; in the driest mould,
 “ and the deepest bogs: the hog however it seems rather to
 “ prefer, as near such places we observed it to be larger than
 “ elsewhere.” Cook’s First Voyage, vol. 3. p. 39. It is remarkable
 “ that, notwithstanding these encomiums of the New Zealand flax,
 “ no attempts were made by the colony established in New South
 “ Wales, in the beginning of 1788, to investigate its merits, or to
 “ attempt its manufacture, till the year 1793, when two New
 “ Zealanders, who had been brought away from their country to
 “ instruct the settlers at Norfolk island, arrived. Mr. Collins
 “ observes “ that the labour of manuring and cultivating the
 “ ground, the loss of other crops, the many processes used in
 “ manufacturing the European hemp, and the accidents to which
 “ it is liable during its growth, are all, by using this flax,
 “ avoided, as it needs no cultivation, and grows in sufficient
 “ abundance on all the cliffs of the island (where nothing else
 “ will grow) to give constant employment to five hundred
 “ people. Indeed should it be thought an object, any quantity
 “ of canvas, rope, or linen might be made there.” Collins’s
 “ New South Wales, vol. i. p. 517.

from distant sources. But short-sighted indeed must be that policy which looks only to the duration of hostilities as the term of maritime jealousy and custom-house restrictions, or supposes that any terms of peace can be stipulated which will, unless a peace system of naval defence and commercial vigour be now organized, at all contribute to secure our independence. New sources of supply must be looked for, and new channels of trade be opened; however repugnant it may appear to be to the sound principles of political economy to encourage that course of commercial industry, of which the returns are distant. The theory of Dr. Smith, that the near trade is preferable to the more distant one, is abstractedly correct; and a country which had equal facilities of carrying on either would consult its interests in preferring the former; but the course of foreign commerce must now be influenced and regulated by political considerations. The tendency of our commerce during the last century has been to quit near, for distant, markets; and under the present circumstances of Europe it is fortunate for Great Britain that this change has taken place. Our distant branches of commerce are susceptible of great improvement, and not so much exposed as European markets to injury from the machinations of the enemy.

As a link in the great chain of commercial in-

tercourse with the East, (which from the British capital it requires would naturally give employment to British shipping, if its progress were not checked by monopoly,) the Cape is become a valuable appendage to a maritime power; and the culture of vines and hemp will, probably, both in a commercial and political view, render it a very desirable possession; although, with reference to its existing means of return, it has not hitherto afforded any adequate compensation for the expence of its civil and military establishment.

It may be urged, as a strong objection against any plan for extending its agriculture, that its population is not calculated, either from numbers or habitual propensities, to carry on any new course of cultivation. The obvious answer is, that if proper inducements be held out, the state of Europe is unhappily such, that a very useful population might soon be attracted thither; not only those Irish and Scotch,* who are disposed to emigrate, might be induced to settle there, (and it would be desirable that a considerable portion of the inhabitants should consist of British subjects,) but the disposition to emigrate from Germany, (particularly Hanover and Prussia) and Switzerland, would probably in a few years stock

* There seems to be no reason to suppose that the causes, which have occasioned emigration both from Scotland and Ireland,

the colony, not only with an adequate white population,* but with a description of settlers, conversant with the management of hemp and flax, and the cultivation of the vine.

The vast importance of raising within ourselves a supply of hemp and flax will be obvious from a statement of the amount of these articles, imported from countries most of which are now leagued in hostile confederacy against Great Britain.

land, will altogether cease : in many respects those causes are connected with the improvement of the country ; and, with respect to their ultimate beneficial results, emigration ought not to be considered as a fit subject for legislative restraint. It is undoubtedly a mistaken idea that it diminishes effective population, or is otherwise injurious to a country. To encourage, however, emigration to take the course most beneficial to the British Empire is a very important consideration ; and there can be little doubt, if a provident foresight is used by Government, in adopting preparatory measures for the accommodation of new settlers on their arrival in British colonies, that both our own countrymen and others desirous of emigrating from Europe, may be attracted to the Cape. In the short interval of peace after the treaty of Amiens, our active enemies sent several persons from Europe for the cultivation of the vine in this settlement ; and a Board of Agriculture was also established there, the plans of which fell into the hands of the British on the capture of the colony this war.

* An influx of white population is indispensably necessary to promote the course of industry most beneficial to the Cape ; and to develop those resources which in naval, military, and commercial points of view, the colony, in the opinion of very adequate judges, is supposed to possess ; the number of its inhabitants in 1798 (exclusive of British settlers and the army and navy) was, only 61947, of which 21746 were Christians, 25754 slaves, and 14447 Hottentots.

The quantity imported into Great Britain in 1803 (the last year mentioned in Mr. Oddy's Tables) was

Hemp . . . 727,000 Cwt.

Flax . . . 294,000 Cwt.

Linen Yarn 1,177,476 lbs.

Cordage . . 10,393 Cwt. On the average of 4 years ending with 1799.

The quantity of linseed is not mentioned. The official value of these articles is thus stated in the parliamentary accounts of the imports in the three years ending 5th January, 1807.

	1804.	1805.	1806.
Hemp . . .	614,544	512,339	619,913
Flax . . .	713,884	913,790	696,274
Linen Yarn . . .	377,266	485,898	431,091
Linseed . . .	138,933	132,186	112,531
Linen Manufact.	517,744	358,794	344,892

The value of Cordage is not stated.

PITCH AND TAR.

The value of the pitch and tar consumed in Great Britain is less than that of any of the articles enumerated in the preceding list, and appears to be about £.300,000 real value.* The

* See *Oddy's European Commerce*, p. 618. The official value of tar imported in the three years 1804, 5 and 6, is stated in the public accounts at 335,142*l*. Average 111,714*l*. 25 per cent must be added to produce the real value. See Appendix D.

resources most deserving of our attention to supply any deficiency from the countries now at war with us, or from the United States, are, 1st. The British colonies in North America: 2. Sweden: 3. A more economical use of these articles: 4. Substitutes manufactured from British produce. A demand for pitch, tar, hemp, and other articles, which may be raised in Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, will probably, by increasing the assortment of their cargoes, turn their timber trade to a more beneficial account than has hitherto been the case.

Sweden, if she continues independent, and attached to Great Britain, will be able to furnish the greatest proportion of the pitch and tar wanted in this country. She already supplies above a third of the quantity, and may be expected to understand her true interest better now, than she did in 1703, when the Swedish pitch and tar company endeavoured to make the English not only pay an exorbitant price, but receive their tar in Swedish shipping;* an attempt which produced the act for granting bounties on the importation of pitch, tar, turpentine, hemp, and timber from the American colonies. The scarcity of tar may be expected to have a good effect in the manufacture of ropes, which, it is well known, have generally been found, under the old practice of being bought by weight, to

* *Anderson's Hist. of Commerce*, vol. iii. p. 16.

contain a superabundant quantity of tar, which is cheaper than hemp. If the increase of its price or any economical arrangement should reduce the proportion of the former article, the consumers of cordage will be very materially benefited : and there is reason to believe that British coal-tar may be rendered a good substitute for foreign tar, for almost every purpose, except the manufacture of cordage.

NAVAL TIMBER.*

The providing naval timber for his Majesty's dock yards is a measure of such importance, that the attention of Government must at all times be directed to it ; more especially in war time, when an increased demand requires an additional supply, which enemies may obstruct. But, in the adoption of plans for obtaining an adequate quantity of this essential article, it should never be forgotten that the formation and preservation even of the navy itself are only the *means*, not the *end* and object, of national exertion. The object is internal improvement ; of which, the extension of agriculture is, indisputably, the principal foundation. That system, therefore, of defence, which gives the least possible obstruction to this extension, must be so desirable, that any attempt to reform the naval

* A considerable part of this section is reprinted from a tract on Naval Timber, published by the author of these pages, in 1806.

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branch of the public service will naturally endeavour, if it be compatible with the objects of such reform, to lessen the existing impediments to internal improvement, and to create no new difficulties but what a state of war may require.

The commissioners of the Land Revenue *, in a series of Reports, commencing in 1787, and terminating in 1793, have stated to the Legislature, that, from the information of the Navy Board, of purveyors, and dealers in timber, ship-builders, and chairmen of the Quarter Sessions, it appears "there has been, within memory, a "great decrease of oak timber of all sizes in every "part of the kingdom, but that great naval timber has decreased more than any other †." It is added, that "this decrease is the more alarming, and calls the more for the attention of the "public, from its being occasioned, not by any "temporary causes, but by such as will, probably, "render it in future still more general and rapid ‡." — "One circumstance only," (the commissioners

* Sir Charles Middleton, (now lord Barham,) Sir John Call, John Fordyce, Esq. The first and last are now members of a Board (established for revising the civil affairs of the navy) which has resumed the enquiry into the state of oak timber. Their queries, circulated through the kingdom for this purpose, are contained in the 11th vol. of the *Papers of the Bath and West of England Society*. P. 94.

† 11th Report of the Commissioners appointed to enquire into the State and Condition of the Woods, Forests, and Land Revenue of the Crown. P. 9.

‡ 11th Rep. p. 9.

observe,) “ in the account we have given, ap-
 “ pears to us still to require particular explana-
 “ tion; and that is, that, notwithstanding the de-
 “ crease in the quantity of great timber, which is
 “ so fully proved, the *contract* prices given by the
 “ Navy Board have not been raised since 1756. *
 “ This must seem the more extraordinary, from its
 “ being also proved, by every information we have
 “ received, that the current prices of timber, of all
 “ kinds and dimensions, have risen within that
 “ time; for it cannot be supposed that Govern-
 “ ment has really been supplied on better terms
 “ than well-informed individuals acting for them-
 “ selves; and the difference between the contract
 “ and the current prices of great timber, we appre-
 “ hend, can hardly be accounted for in any other
 “ way than by supposing, that, notwithstanding
 “ all the care taken by the Navy Board to procure
 “ timber on low terms for the public, some ex-
 “ traordinary advantage is obtained by the con-
 “ tractors, on some articles, in consequence of the
 “ complicated nature of the contracts, which at
 “ least makes up for this apparent difference †.
 “ The improvements in roads and navigable canals,
 “ within the last forty years, tend also to account

* The general price of oak timber, however, (according to the late Mr. Davis of Horningham,) has considerably risen; from 40s. the price per ton for 60 years to 1763, to 46s. 8d. in 1791; 56s. 8d. in 1796; 73s. 4d. in 1801; and to 5l. in 1800, *Bath Papers*, vol. 11. p. 98.

† 11th Rep. p. 10.

“ for the supply of the increased demand of naval
 “ timber, without any considerable addition to the
 “ price*.” The commissioners conclude their re-
 marks on the price of timber with the following
 sentence: “ What we have stated are circum-
 “ stances which must have tended to keep down
 “ the price of timber, even at a fair market and
 “ where competition existed; but the commis-
 “ sioners of the navy, having no considerable
 “ competitor in the purchase of great naval tim-
 “ ber, except the East India Company, must
 “ necessarily have it in their power, in a great
 “ measure, to regulate the price; and their con-
 “ duct has been well calculated to obtain naval
 “ timber for the public at a low rate. Having
 “ gradually stored up, during peace, a great
 “ quantity in the dock yards, and continuing at
 “ all times to purchase what was offered, without
 “ varying the price, they have avoided the dan-
 “ ger of being obliged, on any emergency, to
 “ raise it; and, by paying a part of the expence
 “ of long carriage†, they have greatly widened

* Ibid. p. 11.

† Of the heavy expence of conveying English timber to
 the dock yards, some idea may be formed from the prices in
 1789.

The expence per load for carriage was
 From the New Forest to Portsmouth, including
 felling (5 Rep. p. 31) - - - - - 0 15 1½
 Four times as much from the Forest of Dean
 (Ibid.)

" the field of supply *." The obvious inference from all these circumstances is, that complicated contracts, and other advantages attending dealings with the public, have probably occasioned them to pay more than is supposed for timber in general; and 2dly, that they have not given enough for great timber, of which they and the India Company are the only purchasers.

A very different, but not so satisfactory a reason, for the scarcity of great timber, had been given in a former Report, which states, that it has been " found, from experience, that an addition to the demand for naval timber does not produce a proportional supply from private property; and the reason is obvious: an oak must grow an hundred years or more before it comes to maturity; but the profits arising from tillage or pasture are more certain and immediate, and perhaps as great: it cannot, therefore, be expected that many private individuals will lay out money on the expectation of advantages which they themselves can have no chance to enjoy: commerce and industry seek for, and are supported by, speedy

From Holt Forest to Deptford (6 Rep. p. 84 to 88)-	- - - - -	1	8	6
From Salcey to Deptford, partly by 50 miles land carriage (7 Rep. p. 11)-	- - - - -	3	18	0
From Whittlewood to Deptford, partly by 50 miles land carriage (8 Rep. p. 19)-	- - - - -	3	10	0

* Ibid.

“ returns of gain, however small ; and the more
 “ generally the commercial spirit shall prevail
 “ in this country, the less probability there is
 “ that planting of woods for the advantage of
 “ posterity will be preferred to the immediate
 “ profits of agriculture *.”

Were it necessary to compare speculative opinion with fact, the position above stated might be satisfactorily controverted. The paragraph, immediately preceding the last extract, mentions, that it had been found from experience that an addition to the demand for naval timber *did produce* a proportional supply from private property—“ The great addition to the navy
 “ and commerce of Great Britain, with the rapid
 “ increase of the valuable business of ship-build-
 “ ing in this country since the close of the last
 “ war, and since the employment of American-
 “ built ships in our trade has been restricted, are
 “ circumstances which render any other evi-
 “ dence of an immense additional demand for
 “ naval timber unnecessary ; and our informa-
 “ tion as to the reality of the general decrease
 “ of timber is too certain to admit of any doubt.
 “ The commissioners of the navy having, one
 “ year with another, been furnished with no
 “ more than 2000 loads of timber from his Ma-
 “ jesty’s forests, have purchased all the rest, be-

* 3d Rep. p. 5.

"ing about 23,000 loads *, from individuals in this country, no part of the rough timber being now imported †."

The fact here stated, that no timber had been imported, coupled with the circumstance that the contract prices for naval timber had not risen, would, unless it had been otherwise explained, have justified an inference that there was no scarcity. Nor is the principle well-founded, that an article will not be cultivated because it requires an hundred years to bring it to perfection. Acorns and wheat will, in general, be sown with the same view; namely, that the capital employed in their culture shall be replaced with an adequate profit. It is not necessary, either in trade or agriculture, that the returns should be annual. In many instances, several years must pass away before any return, and that uncertain in amount, can be expected. In the cultivation of underwood and hop-poles, from ten to twenty years must elapse before any crop can be obtained. Many cases of inclosing, draining, and manuring, might be pointed out, in which a still longer period will be necessary to reproduce the capital invested with an adequate profit. If, when timber is twenty years old, the owner finds, that by letting it stand twenty years

* This regards only timber consumed in the dock yards.

† 3d Rep. p. 5.

longer, or, in other words, by re-investing its value in growing timber, he can at the end of the term obtain an adequate profit, he has a sufficient inducement to let his trees grow; and, on the same principle, the owner of trees eighty years old will let them stand till they are one hundred years old. But the price of great timber is too low, compared with the price of other home products, to produce cultivation. Underwood, indeed, in many parts of England not well supplied with coal, has reached the price that will compensate for its growth; but, with respect to timber, generally wanted for the internal purposes of the country, foreign countries, notwithstanding our high import duties, (which may be considered as a premium for planting,) are enabled to enter into a successful competition with the timber growers of Great Britain.

The principal import, however, till of late years, has been fir timber: and there is now hardly any wood used in the construction of houses but what is brought from the Baltic.

That there is a probability of future scarcity of British oak must be admitted. The increased demand for timber, for the ships in his Majesty's service, including those built and repaired in the King's and private yards, and hired vessels, probably exceeds 70,000 square loads a-year.

As the best means of providing a future supply, the Commissioners of the Land Revenue

propose, that such part of the royal forests, as would, on the adjustment of the various rights claimed by individuals, be allotted to the Crown, and which they compute at 60,000 or 70,000 acres, should be inclosed and planted, on the presumption that the land so inclosed would, after 100 years, produce an annual supply of 50,000 square loads of timber *.

Such a plan, it is obvious, is not calculated to furnish any supply of timber to the navy during the present generation, except as far as it may preserve young trees already planted, and promote their advance to maturity. The Commissioners observe, that, although the quantity of timber which has been furnished from all the forests during the present reign has not exceeded 2000 loads a-year square measure, they have no doubt, that as soon as a settlement shall have been made with the Commissioners, or other " effectual means taken for increasing the " stock of timber, the annual fall in the forests " may be raised to nearly 4000 loads square " measure, and be continued at that rate without intermission, until the new plantations " shall be arrived at maturity †."

Although, therefore, it should be admitted, that by the arrangement proposed 4000 square loads would be annually secured from the royal

* 11th Rep. p. 24.

† Ib. 25.

forests for the next hundred years, the demand of the navy, if taken at 70,000 loads a-year, (the supposed present consumption,) or even at 50,000 loads, (the average annual consumption, twenty years ago,) would require in the first case 66,000 loads, or more than sixteen times the quantity furnished by the royal forests, and in the latter case 46,000 loads, or nearly twelve times the quantity furnished by the forests, to be supplied from private property or commerce. But, as the Commissioners very justly conclude "that the gradual diminution of the wood and "timber in the country is to be expected in any "future stage of its improvement*," it is obvious that, for the next hundred years, (even without that increased demand for naval timber which must as naturally attend the improvement of the country,) the supply from the royal forests being limited, and the supply from private property being gradually diminished, Government must necessarily look to commerce, not only for the motives, but the means, of ship-building; and, under these circumstances, it becomes highly important to consider whether it is not repugnant to the sound principles of political economy to adopt a forest system, which will have the effect of continuing 60 or 70,000 acres of fine land in maritime mortmain, and of forming

* 11th Rep. p. 12.

an experimental farm of that extent, to be managed by the officers of the Crown*; for the immediate object of securing, from the forests, only a 12th or 16th part of the present consumption, and for the remote object of possibly providing, after one hundred years, the whole supply that may then be wanted.

Far better would it be (at a period when the necessity of naval reform has been acknowledged,† and, it may be presumed, will be faithfully acted on, to adopt the recommendation of a person ‡ well acquainted with the nature of the royal forests, and to alienate such parts of the landed property of the Crown as are not necessary to be retained for the honour, dignity, or

* The Commissioners suppose that, in consequence of the administration of the forests proposed by them, "not only might the management of the estates of the Crown become, in time, more perfect than is common in private property, but means might suggest themselves by which the obstructions to the cultivation of land might be lessened or removed, and improvements in agriculture discovered." 17th Rep. p. 24.

† See the *Reports of the Commissioners of Naval Enquiry*; and the *Reports of the Commissioners for revising the civil affairs of the Navy*.

‡ The late Hon. John St. John, surveyor-general of the crown lands. His "*Observations on the Land Revenue of the Crown*," published in 1788, will throw much light on this important national subject; and, as the work is now out of print, it would be desirable, if any new series of Reports on the woods and forests is in contemplation, to subjoin Mr. St. John's proposal for the consideration of the public.

comfort, of the Royal Family. The forests, from soil, and contiguity to towns and sea-ports, are peculiarly adapted for the best purposes of agriculture; and it is to be presumed, that, in the alienation of them, arrangements might be made to secure the appropriation of 4000 loads from the growing timber, or at least the greatest part of that quantity, (if it should be deemed expedient so to do,) for the annual supply of the navy during the present century. The value of the fee-simple of the forests, including the underwood and decayed timber, is not inconsiderable, and would probably, from a sale well conducted, yield at least £. 2,000,000; the produce of which would be applicable to every useful purpose for which it might be deemed eligible (or has hitherto been thought expedient) to provide, from the revenues of the landed property of the Crown. The present system, which excludes so fair a portion of the land of Great Britain from that improvement of which it is susceptible, may be deemed to be inimical to the best national interests. The royal forests, altogether, comprize 115,000 acres, or a tenth more than the county of Rutland; and, after making a fair allowance for the actual population on them, it is to be expected, that, in consequence of the cultivation of such fertile districts near the sea, an increased coasting

trade, and a consequent addition of maritime population, the best bulwarks of our navy, would be produced in a shorter period than an hundred years.

Landed property in general, and particularly landed property applied to the production of timber, is of such a nature, that no flattering expectations can be formed that public domains of this description can be well administered,* even with a view to the mere object of providing timber. We know, from experience, how inefficacious laws, that were supposed to be the most salutary, have proved in preventing either the recurrence of past, or the growth of new, abuses. So multifarious are the rights now claimed in the forests, (which were once, no

* " We are sensible, that under the best plan of management which can be devised, the care and uniform protection which a nursery of timber requires, will always be found more difficult and more expensive in any situation to the public than to a private proprietor ; and, if it were certain that a regular supply of timber for the use of the navy could be obtained from private estates in this country, we should think it for the advantage of the public to sell the whole of the forests, and invest the purchase in the public funds, instead of attempting the improvement of any of them by its own officers and servants. It is the concurring information which we have received of a gradual decrease in the quantity of growing timber, the prospect of a scarcity, and the danger of depending on other countries for the support of our navy, which alone could induce us to recommend that Government should undertake what we know to be so difficult, as the management, protection, and improvement of woods and timber." 7th Rep. p. 13.

doubt, the absolute property of the crown,) that the Commissioners state, that " the underwood, " the timber, the bark, the top and lop, the deer, " the herbage, the mines, and the soil itself, are " all the subjects of different grants or reservations, and those grants have been made to persons " of various descriptions, to officers during pleasure, for life, or in perpetuity, and to many persons who have estates or possessions within, or " adjoining to, the forests*." From the year 1730 to the year 1787, the whole of the forests, parks, and chases, belonging to the crown, furnished to the dock-yards only 77,256 loads of oak timber, being on an average of fifty-seven years no more than 1355 loads annually; and, instead of yielding any clear revenue to the public, the value of all they have produced has been expended on them, and a great sum besides, taken from the revenue of the demised estates; so that they have hitherto been a source of expence and not of profit: and yet they now contain much less timber than in former times†. They add, that, from 1761 to 1786, no more has been annually furnished to the dock-yards from the forests than 2000 loads‡, and that the annual consumption of the navy || is 50,542 loads§.

The principles on which the supply of naval timber ought to be regulated, appear to be com-

* 3d Rep. p. 4. + 11th Rep. p. 15. † 3d Rep. p. 49.

|| Including ships of war built in private yards.

§ 11th Rep. p. 20.

prised in a short note from the Chairman of the
 Quarter Sessions at Bury, in the county of Suffolk,
 in answer to the enquiries of the Commissioners
 respecting the means of increasing the quantity
 of timber. "England" (he says) "possessed in the
 past age a great plenty of oak. Why? Because
 cultivation was in a barbarous state. It is the
 improvement of the kingdom, a thousand times
 more valuable than any timber can ever be,
 that has wrought the very good and proper
 diminution of oak, and it is to be hoped the
 diminution will continue; for, if it does not,
 the improvement of our soil will not advance.
 While we are forced to feed our people with
 foreign wheat, and our horses with foreign oats,
 can raising oak be an object? The scarcity of
 oak ought never to be regretted, for it is a
 certain proof of national improvement; and for
 royal navies countries yet barbarous are the right
 and only proper nurseries. Buy oak as you
 buy fir to build your houses. There is oak
 enough within reach of the Adriatic for a
 million of ships of 100 guns each. Proposals
 were made (as I have been informed) concerning
 those woods*, as a supply for England; but no
 ear given, as they had it elsewhere cheap†."

* It is not improbable that in Buonaparte's late visit to his Italian dominions, orders may have been given, and arrangements made, for conveying the timber of these woods to the arsenals of Venice.

† 11th Rep. App. 11.

The commissioners of the land revenue are, however, "very far from agreeing with those who think that Government may safely trust to the supply of timber which private estates and commerce will afford. Holland" (they observe) "is an example, and perhaps the only one that can be given, of a country which, without forests of its own belonging either to individuals or to the state, has been regularly supplied with naval timber through the medium of commerce; but the situation of Holland is very different from that of Great Britain: a state with little territory can have no other means of supply; and the great rivers which, after passing through an extensive continent, in which there are many forests, fall into the sea in Holland, added to its vicinity to those northern countries which abound most in wood, give Holland advantages in procuring timber which no other country possesses in the same degree*." But in this kingdom there are large tracts of land belonging to the crown, which cannot be applied to better uses†; the British oak is of a superior quality to any that grows in those northern parts of Europe, from whence only we can be supplied without enormous expence‡. It is said, too, that timber is becoming scarce|| in those countries, and we

* France has now these advantages, and many more.

† Quære?

‡ Quære?

|| Quære?

certainly should not depend on other states for what is essential to our own defence*."

The position, that we ought not to depend on other states for what is essential to our own defence, may be admitted to be just, if applied to states, which war may probably render inaccessible to our traders. But, though Europe may be shut to them, it is not reasonable to suppose that any cause, not wholly subversive of the naval power of Great Britain, can prevent our obtaining supplies of ship timber from British colonies, and various other countries in different parts of the globe.† And if, by obtaining them, an advantageous export of British produce or manufactures can be promoted, we ought not, by internal regulations, to obstruct the progress of agriculture. If, besides, it should appear, that, with reference to oak timber in general, the expence of raising it at home is such, that fir timber, imported under very heavy duties, has become an almost universal substitute for it; if all the expectation of advantage, which the freest use and the most entire command which private property can give, is insufficient to induce individuals to plant: if, in consequence of our insular situation and colonial system, it be deemed essential to keep up and increase the navy, not only by ships but by seamen, to be formed

* 3d Rep. p. 6. See also 5th Rep. p. 57.

† See the list of countries producing naval timber, in App. C.

and matured for service by the coasting and foreign trade of the country ; if, of all the wants for which a country ought least to depend on foreign supplies, that of food is the most important, as being requisite not only for our defence, but for our existence ; if, with respect to food, Great Britain is not, like Holland, confined to a territory too small to enable her to grow what she wants, but may, from the appropriation of the royal forests to agriculture, increase her stock ; if we, the principal maritime power, can as securely depend on the supply of timber from abroad as our enemies, who till lately have had fewer means of supply than ourselves ; if the production of timber is as general as that of any other article, and not (as is the case with respect to other naval stores, of no less importance for the preservation of our navy) limited to a few countries which some new treaty of concert* may embattle against us, but is found in great plenty in various parts of the globe ; should we not direct our attention to the adoption of a well-digested system for procuring foreign naval timber as the best means of consulting the interests of economy, of commerce, of agriculture, and of naval power :—of economy, by buying cheap from other countries what we buy dear at home, (though it, indeed,

* Written in March 1806.

appears, that the actual price of great timber here is such, that a legislative commission, aided by professional experience, cannot ascertain it;)—of commerce, by the import of a very bulky article, (the fittest object of water carriage,) and principally from those countries to which we make considerable exports of British commodities;—of agriculture, by the repeal of our worst mortmain laws, and by deafforesting 115,000 acres of land, peculiarly suited for the growth of corn;—and of naval power, by increasing the best means of supporting its maritime population and navigation; which, in bringing for us timber from abroad, will rear for us, what is preferable to English oak, that hardy race of men “to whose exertions and services” it is emphatically said by an eloquent preacher,* “we owe, under Providence, all we possess, and deliverance from all we fear?”

It will not be denied that other measures may usefully co-operate in providing the necessary stock of naval timber: they may be comprised under two heads; 1. Such a system of legislative policy as shall not, by its revenue laws† or otherwise, give an unnatural preference to wood for fuel, buildings, or other purposes; and 2. The economical management of naval timber, in

* Dr. Rennell.

† The tax on bricks and tiles has operated in this way; and the proposed tax on iron would have done so, if it had passed into a law.

felling and removal, inⁱ preserving at the dock-yards, in converting rough timber into proper pieces, in rendering ships more durable†, and in providing other wood or iron as substitutes for oak.

HIDES, SKINS, TALLOW.

THE official value of these articles is thus stated in the Parliamentary accounts for three years.

	1804.	1803.	1806.
	£.	£.	£.
Northern European } Hides }	147,913	182,408	170,532
Skins, Calves	65,638	56,361	56,263
Tallow	563,146	427,283	558,300
American Hides ...	95,181	92,704	77,363
Skins and Furs	139,400	150,817	111,487

The quantity re-exported is inconsiderable,

† The Commissioners (in their 11th Report, p. 26,) remark, that if means could be devised to make ships last eighteen years, one-third of the workmanship and materials would be saved. A late publication asserts, that the expence of labour in the King's yards during seven years of the last war, amounted to nearly 2,000,000*l.* a sum equal to the expence of rebuilding, and furnishing masts and yards to, the whole navy. The 11th volume of the Bath Society's papers contains an *Enquiry into the causes of the decay of wood, and the means of preventing it*; by Dr. Parry.

except of American skins and furs, of which about half is re-exported.

The South American trade appears most likely to furnish us with resources for supplying any deficiency in the import of hides and skins from the North of Europe. Our trade with the Brazils will probably produce arrangements not only for obtaining considerable quantities of hides and tallow from that country, but from the Spanish possessions on the River La Plata, where it is well known an ox can be purchased for a dollar. Nor is it unreasonable to suppose, notwithstanding the failure of the expedition to Buenos Ayres in a military point of view, that the communications of our merchants with the inhabitants of that province during the last two years, may extend the commercial intercourse with them, and lead to an improved mode of procuring and packing these articles for export. The present practice is merely to strip the cattle of their skins and tallow, and to roll up the tallow in the skins; which are thus sent on board the ships. Were the tallow properly melted and packed in casks, a considerable expence in freight might be saved. The high price of tallow may very possibly be conducive to the extension of the whale fishery, and promote the adoption of various improvements in lamps, by which oil, which we can always procure in

abundance, may for various purposes be rendered a very good substitute for tallow candles.

SILK.

THIS article is not so indispensable as many of the commodities before mentioned. It, however, is still an important branch of manufacture, although it appears to be from a comparison of the quantity imported, and the manufactures exported, in the three years preceding the war of 1793 with the three years ending with 1805, that the export trade, upon the whole, is rather on the decline.

The home consumption of silk is somewhat increased, notwithstanding the import duty has been nearly doubled within the last twenty years. In the year 1805, this branch of revenue produced £.429,229,* viz.

	£.	s.	d.
RAW SILK {	Bengal	89,645	14 2
	China	23,084	6 —
	Italian and Turkey	68,767	17 7
	Thrown Orgazine	247,731	14 2
		429,229	11 11

* See *Parliamentary Accounts*, respecting Silk; ordered to be printed 11th of June 1806.

An Account of the Quantity of Silk imported into, and exported from, Great Britain, in the Years 1790, 1791, 1792, 1803, 1804, and 1805, and of the Official Value of Silk Manufactures exported in those Years.

IMPORTED.				
Years.	RAW SILK.			Thrown Organ- zine.
	Bengal.	China.	Italian & Turkey	
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1790	314,154	210,558	220,927	508,003
1791	444,358	199,924	332,391	470,195
1792	425,234	102,279	404,381	436,831
1803	405,631	74,538	323,630	384,764
1804	624,878	90,362	317,141	449,182
1805	844,659	72,041	267,850	433,272

EXPORTED.						
Years.	Raw Silk.	Thrown Organ- zine,	BRITISH MANUFACTURES.			
			Of Silk only.		Of Silk mixed with other materials.	
			Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	£.	lbs.	£.
1790	69,546	20,067	132,144	228,722	65,791	14,556
1791	66,512	22,428	156,530	271,351	87,610	19,326
1792	34,514	10,579	162,993	285,197	89,719	19,096
1803	24,220	19,346	86,560	154,545	110,516	19,701
1804	53,363	73,959	108,124	188,600	71,728	13,424
1805	26,125	68,935	114,644	200,168	57,775	11,694

The obstruction which the war is likely to occasion to the import of raw and organzine silk from the southern parts of Europe, may be expected to promote the import of raw silk from Bengal and China; and to encourage the manufacture of thrown silk in Great Britain.

FINE WOOL.

THE production of fine wool is peculiarly deserving of the consideration of Parliament under the present circumstances of the country; although the landed interest, from a recollection of what regulations have been enacted with respect to wool in general, either as to trade or manufacture, might, at first view, very naturally feel disposed to deprecate all legislative discussion on the subject, as injurious interference in their concerns. The point, however, to be considered, is the necessity, not of control, but of encouragement; encouragement, which, without contravening the general maxims of sound policy, may afford considerable relief to those classes most likely to be distressed by the war. The nation, from the nature of the present contest, is subjected to the risk of restrictions,

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(within the power of the enemy to impose,) that are well calculated, not indeed to destroy, but to suspend, or at least embarrass, the woollen manufacture, which derives its most valuable material from Spain. That country is now a garrisoned province of France; and undoubtedly far more able, by interdicting the export of fine wool, (which cannot be procured in equal abundance from any other part of the world,) to create alarm in our manufactures, than America can reasonably expect to do by laying on an embargo which will operate as a prohibition on the export of cotton, an article that can be obtained from other quarters. It will be seen from the following statement* that, if the attention of his majesty's ministers should be directed to the subject of fine wool, the British Empire may, in a short time, be amply supplied with this essential article of comfort without the intervention of France or her dependants. It appears from the parliamentary accounts of the year 1806, that, on the average of the years 1802, 1803,

* The chief materials of this statement are derived from Dr. Parry's valuable "*Essay on the nature, produce, origin, and extension of the Merino breed of sheep,*" communicated to the Board of Agriculture, and recently published by them: a work which will be read with high gratification by men of classical learning, and sound politicians; by intelligent farmers, and liberal manufacturers.

and 1804, the fine wool annually imported into Great Britain was nearly 7,000,000lbs. (a quantity equal to about a seventh of the short wool * raised at home,) and that of this amount above 6,000,000lbs. were Spanish. From a calculation of the prices given for these wools by the clothiers in England, with a reasonable deduction for the merchants profit, it may be estimated that the annual expence of this branch of imports must exceed £. 1,560,000.

When it is considered that, in consequence of various circumstances connected with the war, Spanish wool has risen to an enormous price, and that France, whether she imposes a duty † (as has been asserted) on its export, or receives tribute from the people enriched by our purchases, in either case acquires augmented means of continuing hostilities, can there be a doubt that the interests of the manufacturers, as well as those of the country in general, would be promoted by a new and additional supply at home, if such can be obtained on cheap and reasonable terms? Such a supply is the more desirable from the consideration that, notwithstanding the pro-

* Viz. as estimated by Mr. Luccock, 48,656,880 lbs. from 11,854,299 short woolled sheep. *Luccock on Wool*, p. 338.

† It was supposed a few years ago, (it was not, however, the fact) that Portugal had imposed a duty of 27 per cent. on Spanish wool coming through her dominions.

fit derived from the sale of Spanish wool to Great Britain, it may be deemed expedient by France, with reference to her system of interdicting all intercourse between us and the continent, to impose the severest penalties on the exportation of wool from Spain, even to neutral states. The model of a prohibitory law respecting wool may be found in the British statute book*: and, although the policy of such a measure, even with the view of injuring this country, might be doubtful; it does not appear unreasonable to suppose, that another event may take place, (namely, a change in the system of agriculture in Spain in consequence of any revolution in its government,) that would answer as effectually as any prohibitory law in depriving us of the supply of fine wool from that kingdom. Bourgoing, a French writer well acquainted with every circumstance respecting the maintenance of the Spanish flocks, has taken great pains to shew that the travelling sheep (amounting to 4,500,000, or nine tenths of the whole Merino race) “ are destructive of the produce
 “ and population of the finest provinces in
 “ Spain; and he contends that nothing would
 “ so much contribute to the welfare of that
 “ country as the inclosure of those provinces,
 “ and the consequent annihilation or reduction

* 7th and 8th Wm. III. c. 28.

“ of those immense flocks” *. It may easily be imagined that, as all the flocks in Spain, whether Merinos, or coarse and long woolled, amounting in the whole to 13,000,000, are managed under an oppressive code of laws called the Mesta, and the great body of flock masters consists chiefly of grandees and religious societies, the inducement to forward agricultural improvement will, in the French view of political economy, be essentially heightened by the consideration that the change will greatly impoverish the Spanish aristocracy.

It is remarkable that, whilst other countries, less interested than Britain in the acquisition of fine woolled sheep, have for a long series of years exerted themselves to naturalize the Merino breed, we, with a few honourable exceptions, have contented ourselves with importing their wool. As early as 1723, a Spanish flock was introduced into Sweden, by Mr. Alstroemer. “ Under his direction the government instituted “ a school of shepherds in 1739; and, soon afterwards, granted bounties of 25 per cent. to “ all the venders of fine and good wool. Those “ bounties were successively reduced to 15 per cent. in the year 1781; and to 12 per cent. “ in the year 1786; and in 1792, their object “ having been answered, were wholly discon-

* Dr. Parry's *Essay*, p. 142.

"tinued. The bounties so distributed amount-
 "ed in all to between fifty and sixty thousand
 "pounds sterling. In the year 1764, there were
 "in Sweden 65,369 of the pure breed, and
 "23,384 crossed with them so deeply as to pro-
 "duce fine wool. It is supposed that of the
 "former there are now at least 100,000, or
 "about one twenty-fifth of the total number of
 "sheep in Sweden. The wool of the descen-
 "dants of this primitive flock is in every re-
 "spect fully equal to that of Spain. It should
 "seem that, at present, the Swedes raise in
 "their own country nearly as much fine wool
 "as is sufficient for their manufacture: and
 "therefore use little of that which is grown in
 "Spain."*

"In 1797 the government of Denmark im-
 "ported from Spain 300 sheep, which were
 "placed at Esserum, eight leagues from Copen-
 "hagen."† Saxony no longer imports Spanish
 wool; and is supposed to contain between 90 and
 100,000 fine woolled sheep, a great part of the
 produce of which has of late years been import-
 ed into England. Prussia, Austria, other states
 in Germany, Holland and Piedmont, have ac-
 quired considerable flocks of Merino sheep;‡
 but the greatest exertions to naturalize this breed
 have been made by that active and enterprising

* *Essay*, p. 70. † *Essay*, p. 72. ‡ *Essay*, p. 74.

government which has now the absolute disposal of the native flocks in Spain. In 1785 or 1786, 367 Merino sheep were presented by the King of Spain to Louis the Sixteenth; Lasteyrie, who has given a very full history of this breed, states, that in 1799 "there were 500 flocks of French sheep crossed with Spanish rams, many of them to the second and third generation. It is supposed that, in the year 1802, there were in France 15,000 sheep of the pure Merino breed, and nearly 1,000,000, the wool of which was meliorated by having been crossed with that race. The eagerness to procure them was extremely great. This appears from the account already given of the great increase in their prices. They had been demanded and obtained by 21 departments; and, at the public sale at Rambouillet, in 1802, no less than 57 farmers were purchasers."*

"It is not generally known in this country that, by a secret article in the treaty of Basil, the French Directory had stipulated for itself the privilege of purchasing in Spain, during each of five successive years, 1000 ewes and 100 rams. Several years elapsed before France availed itself of this power. But at length, about the year 1799, or 1800, 1000 sheep were purchased in Spain by Gilbert, who died

* *Essay*, p. 82, 87.

“ before he had farther accomplished the object
 “ of his mission. Of these sheep, which did
 “ not arrive in France till after his death, 360
 “ were placed, at the national expence, at Per-
 “ pignan; and, in 1801, had increased to 735.
 “ The remaining 640 were distributed among
 “ different persons, who had become subscribers
 “ to the fund proposed by the government for
 “ that purpose. After that period, the agricul-
 “ tural society of the department of the Seine
 “ petitioned the government to allow them the
 “ power of obtaining, by a subscription among
 “ themselves and others, the 4400* Merinos still
 “ due from Spain by the treaty of Basil. Their
 “ petition was granted; and two agents and
 “ several shepherds were sent into Spain in order
 “ to select and conduct the whole number. Of
 “ these, 1200 arrived in France, in the year 1802,
 “ and were variously distributed. The remain-
 “ ing 3200 were to be purchased as quickly as
 “ the Spanish Government would permit.”†

It was not till 1792 that any considerable number of Spanish sheep was imported into Great Britain. In that year the King obtained, through his Minister at the court of Madrid, 5 rams and 35 ewes from the Negrette flock belonging to the Countess del Campo Alange; and this important acquisition, small as it may appear

* Qu. 4500?

† *Essay*, p. 85.

to be, has afforded the means, first, by a gratuitous distribution of sheep, afterwards by an open sale at a fixed price, and lastly by a public auction annually at Kew, of proving most satisfactorily, not only that Spanish sheep thrive in England, without any deterioration in their fleeces, but that English breeds, by crosses with Merinos, will in three or four generations acquire wool equal in fineness to the best Spanish piles. The nation is peculiarly indebted to His Majesty's patriotic care, for having, thus, been instrumental in removing the popular opinion that it was not practicable to produce fine clothing-wool in this country by the improvement of our native flocks. The removal of error on a subject of such national importance (whenever it can be completely removed throughout the kingdom) will confer benefits on the country far greater than could possibly be derived from the mere naturalization and multiplication of the pure Spanish breed, important as this object must, for some time, continue to be, in order to accelerate the period of raising an adequate home supply of fine wool; and the high prices, which have been given for rams from the Royal flock, are an adequate proof, that their value begins to be recognised. Some progress has already been made, in crossing the native breeds, principally Ryelands and South Downs; and the progress is considerable with reference to the means af-

fording of making it; however inconsiderable it may be with reference to the amount of fine wool, which can, as yet, be raised by British farmers. The experiment however of producing it in the highest perfection in England has completely succeeded*: and it appears from the

* In Ireland premiums have been offered to encourage the breeding of fine-woolled sheep. *Essay*, p. 96.

The following account in 1796 of the parish of Strathblane, (ten miles north of Glasgow,) shews that the experiment has also succeeded in Scotland: "This article ought not to be concluded without taking notice of the laudable exertions of Archibald Edmonstone, an extensive grazier on the Dunreath estate, to introduce improvements in his line. Among many other attempts to this purpose, he has lately introduced a few sheep of the true Spanish breed into his farm. The only hazard of which he was apprehensive, was that the inclemency of the weather in winter would hurt them. Of this apprehension he has been most agreeably relieved; they have already stood two winters as well as the rest of his stock; and one of them was the most severe that has been known for many seasons. The only precaution which he used was to keep them on his low grounds in winter; but in the summer they are fond of feeding on the tops of the hills, and thrive there as well as the native breed. Their lambs are equally hardy as themselves, and promise to become a great acquisition to the country; the wool being much superior to any ever known in this place. Each ewe produced 4 lb. and the ram 5 lb. which brought 3s. 6d. per lb. and was even at that price sold much under value. Last year he crossed the breed with the Spanish ram, and Scots ewes; and also with a Scots ram and the Spanish ewes; and this experiment has succeeded beyond expectation. The lambs thus generated, have wool little or nothing inferior to the old Spanish sheep, and they may be expected to be even hardier than these, as being inured to the climate from their birth.

Reports of the Bath Society, that of three pieces of navy-blue broad cloth, manufactured in 1807, (of which two were the produce of the Coronet and Alva Spanish piles, and the third of Dr. Parry's Merino-Ryeland wool,) the piece made from British wool was considerably the finest, and the wool and cloth in every state worked more kindly than the Coronet*.

Various new manufactures would, no doubt, be the result, if wool of the above description were produced in abundance in the United Kingdom. It is stated that, from Merino-wool suffered to remain two or three years on the sheep's back, French ingenuity has produced shawls, superior in softness, lightness, and beauty to any made in Norwich or other parts of England†: and it is probable that satisfactory experiments of the same kind have convinced the British growers and manufacturers that fine wool may

"birth. In short, there is not a doubt, if he had sufficient extent of low ground to winter a large stock upon, that Mr. Edmonstone would push this experiment to a degree which might prove highly beneficial to himself, to his landlord, and, as setting an useful example, to the whole country. "In autumn last he also procured a few Cheviot ewes, which he has crossed with his Spanish ram. It is expected this will produce a hardy breed, and improve the wool to a still greater degree of fineness, than the crossing with the common Scots ewes; but on the success of this experiment, time must be left to decide." *Statistical Account of Scotland*, vol. 18. p. 571.

* *Essay*, p. 209.

† *Essay*, p. 152.

be successfully applied by them to a similar purpose.

“ That blankets would be best fabricated from, “ superfine wool is evident from the softness, light-
“ ness, warmth, and beauty of those expensive
“ ones, of a fawn colour, which are often brought
“ into England from India* :” and there are various other articles, in the manufacture of which superfine wool might be beneficially applied, to the exclusion of the coarser short wools now used. It is calculated that, by substituting 2,600,000 fine-woolled sheep, in lieu of 1,400,000 small sheep, of the ordinary breed, on land unimprovable by the plough, and 1,200,000 other sheep, 5,200,000 lbs. of fine wool (which is the amount to which 6,500,000 lbs. the fine wool imported, is reduced by clean scouring) would be gained in lieu of 3,622,000 lbs. of coarse wool clean, or 4,346,400 lbs. washed on the sheep; which is supposed to be less than an eleventh of the whole produce of coarse short wool; and that the superior value of the fine wool gained, above that of the coarse wool abandoned, would give an annual balance of 1,107,250*l.* to the country†.

The benefits from multiplying the breed of fine woolled sheep may be expected to extend far

* *Essay*, p. 148.

† *Essay*, p. 150—that is, supposing the foreign wool to cost 1,560,000*l.* annually, and the native clean wool 3,622,000 lbs. at 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. to be worth 452,750*l.*

beyond the interests of the farmer, the woolstapler, or the manufacturer. The merchant may reasonably expect an increased demand to operate in his favour, in consequence of the reduced price in superfine cloths, and kerseymeres, and other improvements in the manufacture of woollens, which the raising fine wool at home is obviously calculated to produce*.

Although it is probable that the far greater part of the superfine cloths made in Great Britain is consumed at home, yet that manufacture must continue, even during the prohibitory decrees of Bonaparte, to furnish a considerable branch of export. The Chinese are beyond the reach of the French conscripts; and are our customers for nearly a million annually of woollen manufactures. Even France herself, notwithstanding her superior advances in the multiplication of fine woolled sheep, will no doubt,

* This increased demand, however, is more likely to operate in distant parts of the world than in Europe. Of woollens exported, not one fourth part goes to the continent of Europe; and of a considerable portion of the exports to Spain and Portugal the ultimate destination is probably their colonies. Compared with the aggregate export of woollens, the export to those countries has been very inconsiderable.

Official value of woollens exported to

	in 1790	1793	1796	1799
All Parts	£ 5,190,637	£ 3,806,536	£ 6,011,133	£ 6,876,939
Portugal and Madeira	382,038	376,171	425,058	568,788†
Spain and Canaries	407,464	259,849	262,192	none.

† A portion probably of this passed into Spain.

whenever we can raise fine wool at home, at a more reasonable rate than we can import it, deal with us for kerseymeres and other fancy goods, (particularly mixtures of cotton and wool,) which the superiority of our machinery will enable us to sell at lower prices than French manufacturers can do. The prices of superfine cloth and kerseymeres at Paris are at this time 40 or 50 per cent. higher than in London. Even for the coarser woollens, (if the French government should again favour the woollen manufacture in consequence of obstructions created by our maritime power to the progress of their cotton manufacture,) our neighbours may possibly become tributary to Britain*. Of the agricultural capital of France no part has suffered more, by the disastrous consequences of revolution and despotism, than the stock of sheep†.

* Previously to the Revolution France annually imported wool to the amount of 27,000,000 livres (above a million sterling.) See *Young's Travels through France*, vol. i. p. 413.

† It is stated by a French author, well acquainted with the subject, (*Sauvagegrain, marchand boucher à Paris*,) that it appeared from official enumerations, made in 1804, that the number of sheep was 30,307,600; the annual consumption of which he estimates at about a fifth (averaging 26 lbs. per head) or 149,533,000 lbs. Spain, with 11,000,000 inhabitants, (a third of the population of France,) has 15,000,000 sheep; and Great Britain, there is reason to suppose, contains about the same number as France. Mr. Luccock, in his work on wool, p. 341, computes the number of sheep in England and Wales to be 26,000,000, of which 7,000,000 are annually

The quantity of wool manufactured in this country, (including it may be presumed Spanish as well as English wool,) was stated by one of the witnesses examined before the House of Commons in 1800 at 600,000 packs of 240 lbs. each, or 144,000,000 lbs. The 600,000 packs were valued at 11*l.* a pack, and supposed to be increased to the threefold value of 19,800,000*l.* by manufacture. According to which proportion the value of the Spanish wool annually imported would be increased from 1,500,000*l.* the cost price, to 4,500,000*l.* the value manufactured. Mr. Luccock, however, estimates the amount at only 393,236 packs,* which is probably nearer the truth than the statement made to the House of Commons. If this estimate of increased value be correct, it will furnish a striking instance of the importance of fine wool; which, though, in a raw state, only a twenty-fifth part, according to one authority, or a fifteenth part according to another, of the aggregate quantity of wool consumed, is when manufactured, above one-fifth of the value of the whole. To continue our dependance on a foreign country for such an

ally slaughtered. Their produce in meat, at 60 lbs. a head, a very moderate estimate, is 420,000,000 lbs. or nearly thrice the quantity above stated to be consumed in France. A wool-stapler, examined before a committee of the House of Commons in 1800, supposed the number of sheep to be 28,000,000.

* Table, p. 338.

article, without making further and more vigorous exertions, than we have done, to raise it at home, appears, under the present circumstances of the country, to be wholly repugnant to the policy which dictates the husbanding our own resources, and the destroying those of the enemy. It is therefore submitted to those, whose province it is to mature and bring forward measures of internal improvement for the consideration of the legislature, that a plan formed upon the following outlines, or conformable to their principles, may promote the desired effect of rendering Britain in a few years independent of the continent for what now costs her annually one million and a half; and the extension of the boon to Ireland would greatly accelerate her internal improvement*.

PLAN FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ANGLO-MERINO SHEEP.

§ 1. Let such a price be offered by the public (say 20*l.* a head) as will put in requisition all the spare, healthy, efficient, rams, from one to four years old, now existing in the United Kingdom, of the pure Spanish race, or of the 4th cross and

* No liberal British farmer or manufacturer, notwithstanding all that has been said on the subject, could now, considering the approaching period for consolidating the financial system of the two countries, reasonably object to the intercourse between them in sheep or wool being made perfectly free.

upwards. This premium to be continued for four years. *

§ 2. Let the rams be formed into divisions, each division to be placed under the superintendence of a respectable experienced farmer, conveniently situated in a sheep country. Let the superintendant receive applications for the rams, and distribute them gratis in the proportion of one ram to 100 ewes; the receiver signing an engagement not to admit other rams to that part of his flock, to which the Merino or 4th-cross rams are admitted, except in the case of inefficiency. The names of applicants to be entered in a book as they are received, and such a mode of distribution to be adopted, as shall give the advantage in quality, either according to priority of application, or superiority in number of fine woolled ewes, as may be determined on.

§ 3. Let a premium be offered of 10% per hundred for the production of lambs of the first cross; 20% for the second; 30% for the third, and 40% for the fourth cross: the application for premiums to be made through the superintendant, who shall ascertain the correctness of the claims, and obtain certificates of the lambs being alive in the first August after they are dropped.

* That is, to the year 1811 inclusive; the total amount of this premium is shewn in *Appendix E. Table 3, Col. 6*: If the premium be extended to rams exceeding 6 months and under one year old, there will be an addition of 69,000*l.* to be made for 3,450 ram lambs of the year 1811.

The lambs of the first cross to be marked by one hole punched in the ear, those of the second cross by two holes; those of the third cross by two holes in one ear and one in the other; and those of the fourth cross by two holes in each ear*. The premiums for lambs to be continued five years. No lamb to be intitled to the premium for the second, or third cross, except they are a cross one degree above the parent ewes.

Supposing such a plan to insure the purchase of 525† rams (a year old or upwards) of pure blood, or equally fine fleeces in the first year, 1000 in the second, 1500 in the third, and 2300 in the fourth year, (total 5325,) the whole cost price of this number, at 20*l.* each, would not exceed 106,500*l.*‡: and this charge, as well as the expence of premiums for lambs, would be repaid to the nation almost as soon as incurred§. The

* If necessary, the rams proposed to be bought and distributed, (see § 1 and 2) may be distinguished by slits in their ears.

† That is, the rams born in 1804, 5, 6, and 7. See *Appendix E. Table I.*

‡ If the Merino flocks in Sweden are as numerous and as excellent in quality as they are said to be, could a subsidy to his Swedish majesty be negotiated on better terms for Great Britain, than that she should receive in return for her money an adequate number of fine woolled rams of pure blood? The treaty of Basil has already been mentioned: “*fas est et ab hoste doceri.*”

§ It is no objection to this plan that many owners of fine-woolled sheep would not part with all their rams. Whilst it provides a market for their surplus rams, it furnishes them with inducements to employ those they retain, no less beneficially for the country, than it is supposed will be the case with the rams they dispose of.

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following short statement is subjoined of the advantages arising during the progress of the improvement, by which it appears that the very important result of furnishing our manufactures with the staple article of the requisite fineness may be obtained whilst the increase of value will keep pace with the expenditure.

PLAN.

Dr.	£	Cr.	£
To premium on 100 lambs 1st cross	10	By increased value of fleece	25
ditto 2d cross	20	of 1st cross per 100	25
ditto 3d cross	30	ditto of 2d cross	30
ditto 4th cross	40	ditto of 3d cross	35
Ram supposed on an average to serve 4 years	20	ditto of 4th cross	40
Expence of collecting and keeping rams, and salary of superintendant	10		
Expenditure for 400	130	Increased produce of 400	130

The average value of the fleece (say of South Downs) is taken at 5s.

of the 1st cross	10
of the 2d cross	11
of the 3d cross	12
of the 4th cross	13

Although however it is obvious from the above calculation that the improvement will repay the nation for its expenditure, yet as the repayment will not be made to the Exchequer, financial difficulties may be suggested with respect to granting a bounty for agricultural improvement. An import duty of 6d. per lb. on Spanish wool will obviate this objection, and be an additional stimulus to the growth of fine English

wool*. It will not only defray the whole charge for bounties†, but leave a considerable surplus for the revenue.

It will be shewn by the annexed tables, that, allowing the existing stock to be what the first table assumes, such a stock may be raised that the fleeces of our fine-woolled sheep and lambs of the third and superior crosses will in the year 1818 equal the quantity at present annually consumed, and in the year 1819 exceed it.

From a comparison of the above plan with the system adopted for raising fine wool in Sweden, it will appear that a very different course was pursued in that country: there the object was accomplished by the government's instituting a school of shepherds, and granting bounties of 25, afterwards reduced to 15, and 12 per cent.

* This tax is not likely to operate to the injury of our manufacturers: and, whenever the peace takes place, the present existing war tax of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on wool imported, may, if expedient, be taken off.

† Sixpence per lb. on 6,500,000 lbs. at 5s. the pound, will be equal to 10 per cent ad valorem, and produce 162,500*l.* per annum. It will produce somewhat less, according to the custom-house estimate of real value. To the official value of Spanish wool imported, which is stated for the year 1804 at 433,972*l.*; for 1805 at 417,534*l.*; and for 1806 at 329,996, the Inspector General allows an addition of 200 per cent. in order to produce the real value. See *Appendix D.* The proposed bounties for 5 years will amount to 365,652*l.* in that period; See *Appendix E. Table 3, Col. 6 and 7*; and if 69,000*l.* be added for the lambs of 1811, to 434,652*l.*; and the duty, in five years only, from 1809, inclusive, to 805,034*l.* It may be deserving of future consideration whether, after 5 years, a reduced bounty on the 3d and 4th crosses should not be provided from the produce of the duty.

on all fine wool sold. The first measure appears to be wholly unnecessary for Great Britain, where the management of sheep is very generally understood; and it is conceived that the second would be too complex in its operation, and too exposed to fraud, to succeed. The ascertaining what is fine British wool is a study far more suited to manufacturers or farmers than revenue officers.

The grant of premiums upon the production of fine-woolled sheep is not liable to the objections which are usually urged against bounties. The object is, not to force agricultural industry into a different course from that it is inclined to take, but to perfect a branch of farming to which the country is habituated, and which is essential for its comfort. What Adam Smith, the great enemy of bounties, observes, with respect to premiums given to artists and manufacturers who excel in their particular occupations, namely, that "their tendency is not to overturn " the natural balance of employments, but to " render the work, which is done, as perfect and " compleat as possible," is fairly applicable to premiums for the production of fine-woolled sheep*.

* He does not appear to have been inimical to bounties on production, which he observes "have been very rarely " granted. The prejudices established by the commercial system have taught us to believe that national wealth arises " more immediately from exportation than from production." *Wealth of Nations*, B. 4. C. 5.

Compared with the experiment, which Bonaparte is about to make of raising the raw material in France for his cotton manufacture, how prominently successful may the attempt to produce fine British wool be expected to be! Let the two countries be compared in this respect:—Great Britain, in proportion to its population, has more sheep, and probably more experience in the management of sheep, than any country in the world: it is ascertained that the Spanish race will thrive in any part of the island: the manufacture for which fine wool is required, is the principal manufacture of the country, and the chief article of export: the melioration of British wool will not interfere with any branch of agricultural industry, or obstruct any established manufacture: on the contrary an increased demand for sheep is the best assurance of good farming, and among other advantages will probably render us less dependent on foreign countries than we now are for corn of any description.—France has no experience in the cultivation of cotton: all her stock of farming knowledge for the culture of this exotic is to be furnished by a learned member of the agricultural society of the department of the Seine: and the Minister of the Interior is to procure proper seed from Spain, Italy and South America*. It

* See the letter from the minister of the interior to the prefects, dated March 1807, and inserted in the *Appendix*, B. No. 8.

is not ascertained by adequate experience that this branch of culture will succeed even in the south of France: "of all the productions, to which labour is applied, the cotton plant is perhaps the most precarious: in its first stage it is attacked by the grub; it is devoured by the caterpillar in the second; it is sometimes withered by the blast; and rains frequently destroy it both in the blossom and the bud: *"

The manufacture, of which it is the raw material, is in its infancy; and in all its branches subject to be undersold by neighbouring competitors; by the cottons of the English East India Company; or of English manufacturers, whose skill the French government admit their spinners have not yet been able to acquire. The cultivation of cotton in France must interfere with some existing branch of agriculture, unless (what is not probable) the only good situations for its growth are those which have not been occupied for raising any other productions; and the injury, which its manufacture is likely to produce to what are called national productions, woollens, silks, and linens, is very generally deprecated†.

If, in addition to the advantages enumerated as likely to result from legislative attention being

* *Edwards's West Indies*, vol. 2. B. 5.

† See *Appendix B. No. 7.*

directed to the promotion of the improvement of wool by the grant of competent premiums, it shall appear probable that the measure, when perfected, will be not less advantageous to manufactures than to agriculture, and will secure to us the best means of rivalling continental woollens in foreign markets, no reasonable objection will remain on the score that the first-cost is too great and the advantage too remote. As to expence, let it be recollected that the bounty on corn exported, (a premium on commerce,) has sometimes cost the public in one year more than 300,000l *. The acquisition of fine wool from British sheep, valuing the saving of 1,500,000l. our present import of Spanish wool, at twenty years purchase, will be a gain to the community of 30,000,000l. Ten years are but a span in the existence of a nation : and, if every year in that period produces from the measure a benefit commensurate with the year's proportion of expence, it will not be objected, by men

“ Of patient care and wisdom-temper'd zeal ”

that the improvement must be objectionable because it will be gradual.

* *Wealth of Nations*, B. 4. C. 5.

FROM a consideration of the principal articles of import above enumerated, it appears reasonable to conclude that the British Empire possesses within itself those resources which are indispensable to provide for the continuance of its comforts, its security, and its greatness. To call forth those resources in the way least calculated to obstruct the ordinary channels of industry, and with the least possible expense, appears to be a necessary part of our system of national defence and maritime ascendancy. It however is not meant to be contended, that, with respect to the foreign commodities of importance imported into this country, the object we should aim at is the raising them all within the British dominions. Of hemp, for instance, it does not appear essential that the whole supply should be grown in Britain, Ireland, or the Colonies : the quantity furnished from abroad is between 30,000 and 40,000 tons, (all of which comes from Russia,) of which probably at least a fourth is required for the navy ; but until we grow as much as is wanted for this purpose, it is (as Mr. Spence justly remarks*) perfectly idle to talk of our being an independent maritime power†. Nei-

* *Britain independent of Commerce*, p. 72.

† The whole might probably be raised in Ireland: such seems to have been Bishop Berkeley's opinion 60 years ago : among his queries on hemp are the following :

Q. 75. Whether immense sums are not drawn yearly into the

ther is it meant to be contended that we ought, in defiance of Adam Smith's principles of political economy, to attempt the improvement of the agriculture of the mother country, or her colonies, by means of an expensive system of premiums and bounties. His arguments will, no doubt, be urged against granting bounties on agriculture, although they have been rarely successfully applied against the system of direct premiums and bounties, or regulations of a similar tendency, which have been contrived for the encouragement of commerce. It, probably, will be objected that an increased price, whether created by foreign obstruction or by the addition of bounties, will be an extra burden on the nation ; but the fair question is, not what the price of the article is, or will be, during the progress of the measure for obtaining a British supply ; but what,

the northern countries, for supplying the British navy with hempen manufactures ?

Q. 76. Whether there be any thing more profitable than hemp ? and whether there should not be great premiums for encouraging our hempen trade ?

Q. 77. Whether Ireland alone might not raise hemp sufficient for the British navy ? and, whether it would not be vain to expect this from the British colonies in America, where hands are so scarce and labour so excessively dear ?

Q. 78. Whether, if our own people want will or capacity for such an attempt, it might not be worth while for some undertakingspirits in England to make settlements and raise hemp in the counties of Clare and Limerick, than which, perhaps, there is not fitter land in the world for that purpose ? and, whether both nations would not find their advantage therein ?

on the whole, in pecuniary or political advantage, will be the gain to the country when the measure is carried into full effect. What agricultural improvement by inclosures would be attempted, if the profit were to be calculated only from the receipts and payments during the period necessary for bringing the waste land into a regular course of husbandry?

Upon the whole, the system, necessary for the country to adopt, to secure an adequate supply of the most material of the articles above mentioned from those parts of the British dominions designated as most fitted for their production, may be comprized under three heads, viz.

1. Import duties on wool, and hemp, of which the whole or a part should be applied, for a definite period, to
2. Internal bounties, for each respective branch of produce.
3. General encouragements, the principal of which are a proper legislative system for facilitating enclosures; a revision of the forest system; encouragement to persons (desirous to emigrate from Great Britain, Ireland, or Germany) to settle in the British colonies in preference to the United States of America; and the communication of useful information, by the authority of government, respecting any commodities, the production of which it may be deemed expedient to encourage in any part of the British dominions.

The Orders in Council form a very good part

of the system of national defence, but they do not form the whole of it. They very properly create obstructions in the commercial intercourse of neutrals with the continent in order to produce a pressure on the enemy* ; but they do not (nor is it compatible with the nature of orders of council that they should) provide adequate inducements for the investment of British capital (the abundance of which has produced the improvement even of the enemy's colonies) in new modes of cultivation in the British dominions : in order (as the present circumstances of Europe seem to require) to effect two important objects : 1. to secure to the country an adequate supply of indispensable commodities : and, 2ndly, to counterpoise the increasing strength of the French empire, (the resources of which will probably be augmented and consolidated by peace,) by adding, not, as a continental power can conveniently do, contiguous provinces to the frontiers, but by extending the natural advantages of our insular situation by removing or counteracting

* There are other means of pressure besides those mentioned in the Orders of Council, to which the British government (notwithstanding the declamations of modern philanthropists) will be justified in resorting : the coasting fisheries of Europe, we shall, probably, not allow to be continued, either as the Dutch propose, with a soldier in each boat, or without : and the whole fisheries of the Baltic States may easily be annihilated by our naval power.

(as far as legislation can do) the existing obstructions to the progress of British industry.

That there is a demand for an increased produce is evident ; and it is no less clear that there has been for several years past, and probably is now, an abundant stock of capital ready to be applied to the improvement of the soil, if parliamentary facilities were given to the inclosure of the waste lands of the kingdom.

Among the various causes which have operated to cause the investment of British capital in remote and hazardous speculations, in the Dutch and Danish West India colonies, and even in Cuba, in preference to the unclosed lands of Great Britain, the ease with which land might be acquired, has probably been the principal.

Hitherto the British legislature has felt that the cultivation of wastes, though allowed in other countries, could not be permitted in this island without the aid of a special act of parliament for every particular case, whether the subject matter were the inclosure of 200 or 20,000 acres ; but, when it is recollected how long the objections against the abolition of the slave trade were considered as insuperable, and yet that the measure has at length been accomplished, it is to be hoped that the no less important measure, the internal improvement of the empire by an extended system of cultivation, may at length be forwarded by the co-operation of pressing necessity and perse-

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vering advocates. Difficulties, there is no doubt, would attend not only the devising, but the carrying, any plan into effect : difficulties will attend the practical operation of the Orders in Council : but the energy, and activity, which suggested their adoption, will facilitate their progress : and from them, as well as from any great public measure founded on sound principles, many collateral advantages, not originally foreseen, may be expected to arise.

It is perhaps unnecessary to add that a parliamentary investigation of the best means of promoting internal improvement would essentially serve the interests of the West Indies, by suggesting, as undoubtedly it might suggest, the practicability of introducing new, or extending some old, articles of culture in those colonies* : and it may, lastly, be observed, that the promotion of internal improvement in the different parts of the empire, will, in the present state of the world, be more effectually conducive to the preservation and augmentation of the maritime power of Britain than any scheme of temporizing

* Cotton and coffee are two important articles. Let us hope that the committee recently appointed to consider the state of the West Indies will take an extended view of this subject. There was a time when the legislature thought the encouragement of the growth of coffee a proper measure : and it is a question highly deserving of enquiry, in what manner the financial, commercial, and other, interests of the country would be affected if the duty on coffee were sufficiently lowered to encourage its consumption in Great Britain.

policy, which looks forward to peace for the restoration of the ancient system of commerce ; and therefore limits its expedients, for rendering the country independent of the foreign supply of indispensable articles, to the continuance only of the present war.

A system, thus pursued, with the two-fold object of inflicting pressure on the enemy, and of emancipating ourselves from commercial dependence on the continent, will afford the best chance of a favourable termination of the contest. Under the existing circumstances of Europe, it is in vain to hope that the cessation of hostilities will amount to more than a *Maritime Truce* : and it, therefore, behoves those, who are entrusted with the government of the country, to pursue those measures, which are best calculated to enable us, if the truce be broken, to recommence the war without relative disadvantage. They have advanced some steps, towards the accomplishment of this object, by issuing the November Orders of Council ; and it is to be expected, from their promptitude and vigour, that, unawed by those, who “ with a shrill and sad “ accent, ingeminate the word peace, peace*,” they will persevere in their *Maritime Code*, and establish it on its proper basis, by developing the internal resources of the different parts of the empire.

* See Lord Clarendon's Character of Lord Falkland, *Hist.* vol. 2, p. 359.

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APPENDIX A, No. 1.

A Classic Summary of the value of the Exports of domestic produce from the United States, during the year ending on the 30th Sept. 1803, and the two following years.

THE SEA—2,635,000 dollars.

	Dollars.
1. Fisheries:	
Dried fish, or cod fishery - - - - -	1,620,000
Pickled ditto, or river fishery (herring, shad, salmon, mackarel) - - - - -	560,000
Whale (common) oil and bone - - - - -	280,000
Spermaceti oil and candles - - - - -	175,000
	<u>2,635,000</u>

THE FOREST—4,820,000.

2. Skins and furs (Indian product) - -	500,000	
Ginseng (raw product of forest) - - - -	100,000	600,000
3. Product of wood:		
Lumber, (boards, staves, shingles, hewn timber, masts, &c.) - - - - -	2,800,000	
Oak bark, and other dyes - - - - -	225,000	
Naval stores (tar, turpentine, pitch, rosin,) - - - - -	460,000	
Ashes, pot and pearl - - - - -	735,000	4,220,000
		<u>4,820,000</u>

AGRICULTURE—32,995,000.

4. Product of animals:		
Beef, tallow, hides, live cattle - - - - -	1,145,000	
Butter and cheese - - - - -	585,000	
Pork, pickled bacon, lard, (live hogs) - - - - -	1,890,000	
Horses and mules - - - - -	460,000	
Sheep - - - - -	55,000	4,135,000
5. Vegetable food:		
Wheat, flour and biscuit - - - - -	9,310,000	
Indian corn and meal - - - - -	2,025,000	
Rice - - - - -	2,455,000	
All other (rye, oats, pulse, potatoes, apples, &c. - - - - -	290,000	14,080,000

Tobacco -----		6,230,000
Cotton (at 18 to 45 cents.) -----		7,920,000
Flax seed -----	465,000	
Hops -----	90,000	
Wax -----	60,000	
Poultry, hemp, flax, &c. -----	15,000	
		<u>630,000</u>
		<u>32,995,000</u>

MANUFACTURES—1,655,000.

6. Soap, candles, boots, shoes, &c. -----	395,000	
Hats -----	18,000	
Of grain (spirits, beer, starch, &c.) -----	21,000	
Of wood (including furniture, coaches, &c.) -----	210,000	
Cordage, canvass, linseed oil -----	50,000	
Of iron—pig iron -----	26,000	
bar-iron -----	18,000	
castings -----	6,000	
nails, &c. -----	21,000	
Various items -----	16,000*	
		<u>790,000</u>
7. Of foreign materials, viz.		
Spirits (of molasses) -----	481,000	
Sugar refined -----	18,000	
Chocolate -----	4,000	
Gunpowder -----	38,000	
Of brass and copper -----	6,000	
Medicinal -----	18,000	
		<u>565,000</u>
Uncertain -----		<u>300,000</u>
		<u>1,655,000</u>
		<u>42,105,000</u>

Summary of Domestic Produce exported in 1804 and 1805.

	1804.	1805.
Product of the Sea ----- Dollars	3,420,000 —	2,884,000
the forest -----	4,630,000 —	5,261,000
Agriculture -----	30,890,000 —	31,562,000
Manufactures -----	2,100,000 —	2,525,000
Uncertain -----	430,000 —	155,002
	<u>41,470,000 —</u>	<u>42,387,002</u>

(There is some error in this column : its total amount is 781,000.)

*Extract from the Statement of Exports from 1st Oct.
1805, to 30th Sept. 1806, from the ports of the
United States of America*.*

Produce of the United States.....	Dollars 41,253,727
Foreign produce.....	60,233,236
Savannah (estimated).....	2,250,000
	Dollars 103,736,963

West India Produce.

Sugar.....	pounds 106,249,397
Ditto clay'd.....	39,378,637
Coffee.....	47,001,662
Cocoa.....	6,846,758
Cotton.....	1,833,187
Molasses.....	13,798

Cotton, Sea island.....	6,096,080
Georgia.....	29,561,380

Report of Treasury Department,
24th Feb. 1807.

* See Appendix to the Report on the Trade with the West India
Colonies, p. 83.

APPENDIX A, No. 2.

An Account of the Number of Seamen, Tons of Shipping, Imports, and Exports of the United States, in the following Years.

Years.	SEAMEN.	Tons, Merchant Vessels on which duties were collected.	Imports including Emigrants stock, furniture, &c.	EXPORTS.†		
				Foreign merchandise exported.	Domestic produce exported	Total Exports.
			Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1784	18,000	250,000	11,000,000	1,150,000	9,000,000	10,150,000
1790	25,000	486,890	17,500,000	1,800,000	14,200,000	16,000,000
1791	28,000	502,698	19,000,000	3,799,202	14,600,000	18,399,202
1792	30,090	567,638	22,000,000	5,945,568	15,660,500	21,005,568
1793	33,060	627,670	26,000,000	10,591,788	15,420,000	26,011,783
1794	39,900	628,617	34,000,000	16,843,625	16,200,100	33,043,725
1795	45,000	747,964	48,000,000	29,791,506	18,064,050	46,855,856
1796	51,500	831,900	52,000,000	47,040,076	20,024,021	67,064,097
1797	60,200	876,912	68,000,000	27,042,039	24,032,671	51,294,710
1798	62,300	893,329	63,000,000	33,335,998	27,991,413	61,327,411
1799	63,500	920,000	79,500,000	43,123,335	33,142,187	78,665,522
1800	64,000	972,000	71,800,000	39,120,877	31,840,903	70,971,780
1801	65,000	947,576	88,900,000	46,042,723	46,377,792	93,020,515
1802	63,000	1,003,002	73,000,000	35,774,971	26,182,173	71,957,144
1803	63,000	1,107,323	56,000,000	13,585,073	42,205,461	55,800,035
1804	64,000		80,000,000	36,221,597	41,477,479	77,699,074
1805	66,000	1,443,453	96,000,000			96,000,000

† In the exports the column of totals does not correspond with the two preceding columns; but the errors do not appear to be material, except in the year 1795, in which the total exports should be 47,655,556.

† In the exports the column of totals does not correspond with the two preceding columns; but the errors do not appear to be material, except in the year 1795, in which the total exports should be 47,555,556.

APPENDIX A, No. 3. *An Account of the official Value of Imports and Exports, and of the gross Duties on Importation and Exportation, in the Year ending on the 5th Jan. 1806.*

Countries.	Value of Imports.	Value of Exports.			Gross Duties.		
		British Manufactures.	Foreign Merchandise.	Total.	On Importation.	On Exportation.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Foreign Europe	10,005,649	9,097,452	8,566,927	17,663,681	3,995,302	199,287	4,194,590
British Europe	3,374,654	2,678,444	1,342,938	4,020,682	81,574	14,596	96,170
All Europe	13,383,284	11,775,999	9,908,465	21,684,364	4,076,876	213,883	4,290,760
Asia	6,072,160	1,442,753	195,847	1,638,601	743,975	96,068	839,343
New Holland	153	25,825	4,815	30,641	142	1,623	1,765
Africa	105,971	542,778	438,011	980,790	16,908	13,076	29,984
Cape of Good Hope	5				7		7
Sierra Leone	867	8,093	2,567	10,661	267	141	408
America	9,615,161	11,808,986	954,931	12,163,917	4,800,192	284,557	5,084,750
Total	29,177,605	25,004,337	11,504,639	36,508,976	9,637,670	609,950	10,247,021
Amount of prize goods	1,167,023			The value of prize goods exported, 779,958. is included under the head of the respective countries, to which they have been sent.	141,806		141,806
Grand Total	30,344,628	25,004,337	11,504,639	36,508,976	9,779,477	609,950	10,388,827

APPENDIX A, No. 5.
Account of the official Value of Imports into Great Britain from the United States; and of Exports from Great Britain to the United States, during the year ending 5th Jan. 1806, distinguishing the principal articles

* Hudson's Bay, Newfoundland, Canada, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia.
 † Demerara, Surinam, St. Lucia, Tobago.

APPENDIX A, No. 5.

An Account of the official Value of Imports into Great Britain from the United States; and of Exports from Great Britain to the United States, in the year ending 5th Jan. 1806, distinguishing the principal articles of import or export.

Imports from the United States.		Exports to the United States.	
	£	British Manufacture.	Foreign Merchandize.
Coffee	19,271	Cottons and linens printed	Irish linens, 6d to 18d per yard
Cotton—United States	911,155	not printed	above bounty
British Plantations	1,922	manufactures	Piece goods of India—calicoes
(not otherwise described) ..	28,995	muslins	muslins
Deer-skins half-drest	14,378	white cottons	prohibited
Fustic	11,445	Hardware	Saltpetre
Mahogany	14,261	Iron (wrought)	
Rice	57,517	Linens, plain 6d to 18d per yard for the bounty	
Staves under 36 inches	883	others	
36 and under 50	42,108	Silk, pieces	
50 and under 60	2,250	sewing	
Sugar	10,168	Stockings, thread and cotton	
Tar	38,442	Thread	
Tobacco	168,136	Watchcs (silver)	
Turpentine	74,984	Woolens coloured	
Wheat-flour	20,601	drapery	
		stuffs	
		stockings	
		flannel	
		kerseymerc	
		short cloths	
		blanketing	
Total (including other articles) £	1,565,211	Total (including other articles) £	6,662,929
		Total (including other articles) £	276,236

APPENDIX A, No. 6.

An Account of the official Value of Exports from Great Britain to the Continent of Europe, for the 7 Years ending 5th Jan. 1806, distinguishing each Year and the particular branches of Exports on which there was any considerable diminution or increase.

	1799	1800	1801	1802	1803	1804	1805
British produce and manufactures.	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
	1,507,669	2,772,518	3,574,849	4,531,060	3,680,447	3,890,012	4,598,281
	1,321,972	1,821,122	1,758,802	2,683,035	1,493,141	1,617,282	1,442,661
	275,041	1,051,321	889,181	1,404,697	1,481,002	1,002,490	1,018,092
	1,438,927	1,871,162	1,793,199	2,552,881	1,499,791	1,700,685	2,038,420
Total....	4,543,608	7,516,123	8,116,031	11,172,573	8,154,381	8,210,470	9,097,454
Foreign Merchandize.							
	1,963,094	4,246,561	3,783,381	3,978,548	1,876,812	2,887,997	2,540,236
	576,491	1,552,342	1,091,250	2,394,627	1,527,559	766,386	754,719
	1,370,632	2,151,863	1,834,311	2,966,282	2,022,021	1,956,220	1,314,295
	260,953	515,130	431,809	425,035	292,421	220,295	120,450
Total....	1,608,437	2,350,775	2,068,821	2,939,731	1,741,696	1,739,463	1,660,745
Total of Brit. and For. Merchandize	5,779,607	10,814,471	9,409,573	12,034,223	7,460,509	7,540,361	6,390,745
	10,323,215	18,330,599	17,525,604	23,236,796	15,614,890	15,750,831	15,488,199

APPENDIX, B.

No. 1.

Total.... Total of Brit. and For. Merchandise	5,779,607	10,813,471	9,409,573	12,034,223	1,406,302	15,488,199
	10,323,215	18,320,599	17,525,604	23,226,796	15,613,890	15,750,831

L'une des conquêtes les plus utiles que nous ayons faites pendant la révolution est d'avoir naturalisé parmi nous les machines à filer le coton. Dans tous les points de l'empire il s'est formé des établissemens ou l'on emploie ces machines. Ce n'était pas tout que d'être parvenu à filer, il fallait encore posséder des manufactures de tissage; ce but est en grande partie atteint: nous avons déjà un grand nombre de fabriques ou l'on tisse parfaitement la perkale, le basin, le piqué, la mousseline: il s'en forme d'autres, ou l'on s'occupe avec succès de la fabrication du calicot, si nécessaire à nos manufactures de toiles peintes. Il y a dans la seule ville de St. Quentin et dans les environs huit mille métiers en activité. La prohibition des marchandises étrangères de coton que vient d'ordonner le gouvernement ne contribuera pas peu à nous faire obtenir le résultat si desirable de fabriquer nous mêmes la totalité des articles dont nous avons besoin. Qu'il nous soit permis de faire ici quelques reflexions sur la préférence que nous donnons au coton dans nos habillemens: cette préférence a causé les plus grands maux à notre industrie; elle a détruit nos manufactures de petit lainage, où tout était profit pour nos, puisque nous recueillons dans notre territoire la matiere premiere; elle a porté un coup funeste à nos manufactures de toiles de chanvre et de lin, de linons, de batistes, qu'elle a privées d'une grande partie de leurs débouchés; enfin elle a diminué considérablement la consommation de nos étoffes de soie, genre d'industrie

dans lequel nous l'emportons sur les autres nations, soit par la beauté des couleurs, soit par la variété et la perfection du travail. L'administration ne s'est point dissimulé ces inconveniens, et elle n'a rien négligé pour y parer : mais qu'opposer au torrent de la mode ? Ne pouvant empêcher l'usage du coton, elle a dû chercher les moyens de le rendre le moins ruineux possible pour l'état ; elle a fait les dépenses nécessaires pour procurer à nos manufactures les meilleures machines et gagner ainsi la main d'œuvre. Ce n'est pas exagérer que de dire que la consommation du coton exige une somme annuelle de 150 à 160 millions : les femmes ne s'habillent presque qu'avec des étoffes dont cette matière est le principe ; les hommes en consomment beaucoup pour gilets, cravates, et habillement du matin ; on s'en sert pour les rideaux de croisée et de lit ; on en fait des couvertures, des bas, des bonnets, des mouchoirs, des schals, des chemises, et même des draps. Que résulte-t-il d'un pareil état de choses ? il faut envoyer à l'étranger des sommes considérables pour acheter la matière première. Si une guerre maritime se déclare, il survient des circonstances qui ruinent ou paralysent une foule d'ateliers : le coton augmente de valeur ou devient rare ; et, dans les deux cas, les manufactures éprouvent une crise. A la paix, les inconveniens ne sont guère moindres : la matière première baisse ordinairement de prix ; et alors il faut que le fabricant éprouve une perte qui est plus ou moins considérable suivant son approvisionnement.

Moniteur, 25 Sept. 1806.

No. 2.

Les fabriques de toiles de St. Quentin se divisent maintenant en deux branches d'exploitation distinctes ; les

toiles tissues en fil, et les toiles tissues en coton. Il y a trois ans que la ville de St. Quentin cherche à concentrer dans ses murs la fabrique des toiles de coton : quatre belles filatures qui occupent neuf cents personnes et filent jusqu'à numero 100 s'y élevées en très-peu de tems; un nombre considérable de maisons de commerce s'est empressé de faire manufacturer les basins, parkales, mouselines, piqués, calicots, et généralement toutes les toiles dont l'Angleterre avait le monopole en Europe. Depuis le décret du 22 février dernier, cette fabrication devient de jour en jour plus importante: on y emploie déjà près de huit mille métiers; et, avant peu, le seul arrondissement de St. Quentin donnera un produit annuel d'environ 300,000 pieces, qui ne laisseront rien à desirer relativement à la main d'œuvre, et pour lesquelles la concurrence étrangere ne sera pas à craindre. *Notices sur les objets envoyés à l'exposition des produits de l'industrie nationale. Moniteur, 23 Sept. 1806.*

No. 3.

M. M. Demailly, de Lille; Roussel et Bailly de Commines; Roussel, Grimonporez, Alexandre Decresme, de Roubaix; Gombert et Woussen, de Houplines; Alexandre Duquesne, de Valenciennes; Desurmout freres, Louis Desurmout et Compagnie, de Tourcoing; Lolliot et Gauthier Duhon, de Douai; et Roch Croquefer, de Cambrai; présentent des echantillons de fil de coton depuis les numero 25 jusqu'à numero 155: ce fil, que l'on obtient par les machines dites *mull-jennis*, et par celle à filature continue, est employé presque en totalité par les fabriques de tissues du département. *Notices sur les objets, &c. Moniteur, 14 Oct. 1806.*

La ville de Roubaix possède une fabrique considerable de nankins, nankinets, creponis, satinades, et autres étoffes de coton, fabrique qui a remplacé celle des calmandes, prunelles et satins turcs en laine. On fait aussi des nankins, nankinets, creponis et satinades dans les communes de Lille, Turcoing, Launoy, Scelin, Vaucelles et Cambrai. D'autres communes etablissent des étoffes de coton dans d'autres genres. (*Here follows a long list of persons, who have sent specimens of cotton manufactures*). M. Decremé, de Roubaix, envoie en outre des echantillons d'une étoffe de coton qu'il a nouvellement inventée, et à laquelle il a donné le nom de *Napoline*. *Ibid.*

No. 4.

Il s'est fait une amelioration très-sensible dans la fabrication du coton depuis la dernière exposition.

Les filatures se sont multipliées, les manufactures de basin et de piqué se sont étendues ; les étoffes de ce genre qui ont été présentées à l'exposition, sont généralement plus régulièrement fabriquées et mieux apprêtées. Le public, qui les a examinées avec intérêt, a pu se convaincre de leurs belles qualités ; il est douteux que l'on fabrique mieux en aucun pays du monde.

A l'époque de l'an 10, la fabrication de la mousseline était si peu avancée en France, qu'il n'en parut à l'exposition qu'une seule pièce digne d'être distinguée ; il arriva même que le jury n'eut pas assez de confiance dans son origine pour en parler : aujourd'hui cette par-

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tie se présente sous l'aspect le plus prospère ; la fabrique de Tarare produit en grande quantité des mousselinets très-belles ; dans le seul arrondissement de Saint-Quentin, huit mille métiers sont en activité, tant pour fabriquer des basins que pour faire des mousselines ou des perkales et des calicots, deux genres de tissus qui ne diffèrent de la mousseline qu'en ce que les fils qu'on y emploie sont d'un moindre degré de finesse : cet arrondissement peut produire à lui seul, près de trois cent mille pièces par an.

Les calicots français commencent à devenir si abondans, et sont si bien fabriqués que les manufactures de toiles peintes n'auront plus à regretter les calicots Anglais. Le chef d'une célèbre manufacture de toiles peintes, dont le témoignage est infiniment respectable, nous a assuré que, pour l'emploi dans ses ateliers et pour le bon usage, les calicots français vont de pair avec ceux d'Angleterre, et que les acheteurs les plus exercés et les plus difficiles ne sauraient y appercevoir de différence qui soit au désavantage des nôtres.

La fabrication des velours de coton est également dans une situation heureuse.

De tous côtés, il s'établit des fabriques de nankin, qui donnent lieu d'espérer que cette étoffe, d'une consommation populaire, et par conséquent très-étendue, pourra un jour nous être entièrement fournie par le travail de nos compatriotes.

Les manufactures de coton forment donc, dès-à présent, une branche très-importante de l'industrie française ; elles occupent une grande place dans notre commerce : elles nous affranchissent d'un tribut que nous avons payé jusqu'ici à une nation rivale : sous tous les rapports, elles

sont dignes de la protection du gouvernement. *Rapport du Jury chargé d'examiner les produits de l'industrie française mis à l'exposition de 1806, présenté à S Exc. M. de Champagny, ministre de l'intérieur. Moniteur, 25 Nov. 1806.*

No. 5.

La bonneterie de coton a fait des progrès sensibles : de toutes part on a présenté des bas de coton de la plus grande beauté, exécutés avec un soin et une élégance qu'on ne connaissait pas autrefois ; il est aujourd'hui prouvé par le fait, que, dans ce genre, comme dans celui des tissus, nos fabricans peuvent égaler les fabricans Anglais.

243. M. Lensusmey-Camusat, de Troyes.

Soutient à des prix modérés la concurrence avec ce qui se fait de plus beau en bas de coton : il obtint en l'an 10 la médaille d'argent ; et le jury la lui aurait décernée cette année, s'il ne s'était pas fait la règle de ne point la donner deux fois à un manufacturier pour le même objet.

244. La manufacture de Grillon, près Dourdan.

A présenté des bas d'une grande finesse, et fabriqués dans la perfection.

Le jury ne peut qu'applaudir à la décision qui décerna une médaille d'argent à cette manufacture en l'an 10.

245. MM. Coutan et Couture, place du Chevalier du Guet, à Paris,

Ont présenté divers ouvrages fabriqués avec beaucoup de soin, et qui réunissent toutes les qualités désirables : ces habiles fabricans ont beaucoup contribué, par d'heu-

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reuses innovations, aux progrès que la bonneterie de coton a faits en France; la fabrication du tulle leur doit aussi quelques perfectionnemens.

Le jury s'applaudit d'avoir à rendre témoignage au talent de M. Coutan, qui obtint, dès l'an 9, la médaille d'argent de deuxième classe.

Le jury arrête qu'il sera fait mention honorable de la bonneterie présentée par les fabriques et les fabricans dont les noms suivent :

246. Fabrique de bas de Liancourt.

Cette manufacture a présenté des bas de diverses qualités, tous très-bien faits.

Son dépôt est place du Chevalier-du-Guet, chez MM. Coutan et Courtue, associés de la fabrique.

Nota. La bonneterie n'est pas le seul genre de fabrication établi à Liancourt; il s'y est formé, par les soins de M. de la Rochefoucault, une filature, une manufacture de calicots, et une fabrique de cardes. Tous les objets qui en sortent sont d'excellente qualité; et, sous tous les rapports et dans tous les genres, les établissemens de Liancourt méritent la confiance et l'estime publiques.

247. M. Enos, de Rouen,

Qui a présenté des bas blancs d'une belle qualité, et des bas chinés avec goût, d'une grande finesse et d'un prix modéré.

248. M. Aigoin, de Nîmes,

Qui a envoyé des bas très-fins, d'un blanc parfait et d'un prix modéré.

249. M. Judson, de Bruxelles,

Pour des bas à côtes très-beaux.

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250. M. Forcht, de Strasbourg,
Pour des bas très-beaux.

251. La fabrique de Châlons-sur-marne,

Qui a envoyé des bas dans les qualités communes, et
essais dans le très-fin, qui annoncent l'activité et la
bonté de cette fabrique. *Rapport du Jury, &c. Moni-
teur, 28 Nov. 1806.*

No. 6.

Machines à filer le coton.

420. M. Pouchet (Louis E.), de Rouen,

A présenté un filoir continu à double rang debroches
de chaque côté, étagées et distribuées de manière à
occuper la moitié moins de place que dans les continues
ordinaires.

M. Pouchet obtint une médaille d'or à l'exposition
de l'an 10.

421. M. Albert (Charles), faubourg Saint-Denis, n° 69,
à Paris,

A présenté au concours une série complète de mécan-
iques à filer le coton.

1°. Des carderies *brisaire* et *finissoire*, mues par en-
grenage, sans cordes ni poulies : des vis sont employées
d'une manière heureuse pour régler les chapeaux ;

2° Un laminoir à quatre systèmes ; cette mécanique
mue par engrenage, dans toutes les parties, n'est point
sujette aux irrégularités des moteurs à poulies et à cordes ;

3° Une boudinerie à quatre lanternes qui produit une épargne de main-d'œuvre dans cette préparation ;

4° Une boudinerie à ailettes ou système continu préparant le boudin pour la filature en gros et remplaçant à la-fois les lanternes et le bobinage ;

5° Une filature en gros ou en doux, dite *Strescher*, système *Mul-Jenny* ;

6° Une filature en fin, même système, avec un moteur hydraulique ;

7° Une filature continue, système Trossel, pour les n° 30 à 50, et un autre pour les n° 80 à 180*, pour chaîne.

* 100 ?

Le jury a vu, dans les mécaniques présentées par M. Albert, une parfaite exécution, la réunion de tous les perfectionnemens connus et quelques améliorations propres à M. Albert.

Le jury décerne à M. Charles Albert une médaille d'or.

422. M. Calla, rue du Faubourg Poissonniere, aux Menus-Plaisirs,

A présenté,

1° Une cardé finissoire, dont le tambour délivrant est en cuivre, et conserve la forme cylindrique mieux que ceux en bois : les douves du grand tambour sont faites du même métal, et arrangées de manière qu'on peut faire usage de garnitures de cardes dont les crochets n'auraient pas la même longueur, en remplacer partiellement par des planches neuves celles qui se trouveraient hors de service ;

2°. Une mécanique à filature continue de quâtrevingt broches à filer fin pour chaîne, et dont les broches sont placées de manière que la transmission du tors se fait à

chaque révolution jusqu'aux cylindres de tirage, sans être interrompue par la pression du fil contre le fonds du guide ; ce qui prévient la rupture des fils, et facilite la filature en très-fin ;

3°. Une mécanique *Mul-Jenny*, de cent douze broches, destinée à filer fin pour trame ; elle est construite d'après les meilleurs principes et avec le plus grand soin.

M. Calla s'est depuis long-tems mis au rang des constructeurs de machines les plus utiles aux manufactures, et dont les travaux contribuent le plus aux progrès de notre industrie.

Le jury lui décerne une médaille d'or.

423. MM. Klarck et André, d'Havré, près Mons, département de Jemmappe,

Ont présenté une série de broches pour mécaniques à filer la laine et le coton, faites avec soin d'un prix modéré.

MM. Klarck et André ont formé un établissement en grand, où ils font deux mille broches par semaine par des moyens simples et ingénieux qui abrègent et perfectionnent la main d'œuvre.

Une pareille manufacture ne peut qu'être très utile aux établissemens de filature.

Le jury décerne à MM. Klarck et André une médaille d'argent de première classe.

424. M. Pelluard, à Liancourt,

Obtient, en l'an 10, une médaille de bronze équivalente à une médaille d'argent de 2^e classe, pour la bonne fabrication des cardes. Il en a exposé cette année, que le

jury a vues avec satisfaction ; elles sont parfaitement fabriquées, et ne peuvent qu'accroître l'estime dont jouissent depuis longtems les cardes de Liancourt.

425. M. Augustin Corbillez, de Nonancourt, département de l'Eure ;

426. MM. Hache et Bourgois, de Louviers ;

427. M. J. Valsch, d'Orleans, actuellement à Paris, rue du Battoir, n° 5, près le Jardin des Plantes ;

428. M. Scribe, de Lille ;

Ont présenté des cardes remarquables par le bon choix du cuir, par la qualité des fils de fer et des fils d'acier, par la régularité dans la distribution des crochets, et par l'intelligence avec laquelle la hauteur du comble est proportionnée à l'épaisseur du cuir.

Le jury leur décerne à chacun une médaille d'argent de 2^e classe.

429. M. Delafontaine fils aîné, directeur associé de la filature de Lescure, près Rouen,

A présenté une machine à filature continue, composée d'un petit nombre de broches destinée à filer pour chaîne dans les n°s de 80 à 100.

M. Delafontaine a eu pour objet de faire connaître,
1°. Une nouvelle manière d'enfiler les cylindres de tirage, qui est plus solide, et qui donne les moyens de remplacer les collets sans changer les cylindres ;
2°. Un moyen de soustraire la bobine à l'action de la

broche, a fin de pouvoir plus facilement en régler la résistance, suivant la finesse du fil ;

3°. La forme qu'il conviendrait de donner à la denture des roues d'engrenage, pour obtenir plus d'uniformité dans le mouvement.

Le jury a pris l'idée la plus favorable des connaissances de M. Delafontaine dans la mécanique, et de son aptitude pour perfectionner les machines à filer le coton : il lui a décerné une médaille d'argent de 2^e classe.

Le jury arrête qu'il sera fait mention honorable des fabricans dont les noms suivent :

430. M. Andrieux, mécanicien, Place-Royale, n° 24, à Paris ;

Carde finissoire et *Mul-Jenny* pour filer en fin ; ce deux machines sont très-bien exécutées.

431. M. Caillon, mécanicien, rue Saint-Martin, n° 82, à Paris,

Machine propre à canneler les cylindres pour filature.

Nota. Il avait aussi exposé des barres de fer dressées à la varlope et dignes d'être remarquées.

432. M. Maquennhem, d'Escarbotin, département de la Somme,

Cylindres cannelés, pour filature et carderie, construits sur d'excellens modeles ; ce mecanicien, distingué a monté des ateliers pour fabriquer ces objets en manufacture, et au meilleur marché possible ; c'est un véritable service qu'il rend aux filatures.

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433. MM. Bouché oncle et neveu, quai Pelletier, n° 38,
à Paris,

Cylindres cannelés, broches, roues d'engrenage et supports pour filatures ; le tout très-bien exécuté.

Ces messieurs avaient aussi exposé des outils de tout genre, de très-bonne qualité.

434. M. Peujol, de Besançon,

Cylindres cannelés pour filature, fabriqués avec soin.

Rapport du Jury, &c. Moniteur, 4. Dec. 1806.

No. 7.

M. Collin ; rapporteur.—Ce projet a en sa faveur une expérience de plusieurs mois, pendant lesquels son exécution a déjà produit des résultats, avantageux au trésor public sans nuire aux intérêts de l'industrie et du commerce. Le titre premier présente des augmentations de droits sur quelques especes de marchandises* à leur en-

* The following list comprizes the different articles, and the duties to which they are respectively subject.

<i>Produce of the French Colonies.</i>		<i>Foreign Produce.</i>		
	Francs. Cents.		Francs. Cents.	
Cocoa . . .	175	.	200	} per quintal.
Coffee . . .	125	.	150	
Chocolate . .		.	260	
Cotton-wool . .		.	60	} per kilogramme.
— twist . . .		.	7	
Sugar, raw . .	45	.	55	} per quintal.
—, clayed . .	80	.	100	
Tea under 8 francs		.	3	} per kilogramme.
— 8 francs and above		.	3	
Nankeens . . .		.	50	per cent. ad val.
				per metre.

trée en France : elles sont une suite nécessaire des intentions que l'Empereur a constamment manifestées de trouver, dans les ressources des impôts indirects, les moyens de soulager l'agriculture en diminuant la contribution foncière.† Le titre 3 prohibe l'entrée des mous-

At several preceding periods within the last ten years, great additions had been made to the import duties, but the customs had not been proportionally augmented. It appears from the following account that the gross produce in 1806 was 67,105,622 livres, of which the net Treasury receipt, after deducting the expences of collection, was only 51,727,218*f.* 27*c.* It is remarkable that Antwerp, in point of produce stands highest in the list of custom-houses.

	Livres.	C.		Livres.	C.
Anvers - -	20,426,582,57		Voghère - - -	522,588,43	
Bordeaux - -	10,907,455,47		Parme - - - -	500,591,43	
Nantes - - -	7,707,223,87		Rouen - - - -	489,762,36	
Marseille - -	4,735,909,85		Généve - - - -	398,180,69	
Cologne - - -	3,732,845,23		Brest - - - -	569,794,84	
Strasbourg -	2,732,941,44		Aix - - - - -	333,984,17	
Cherbourg - -	2,496,997,32		Cette . - - - -	317,874,61	
Gênes - - - -	1,951,240,21		Perpignan - - -	317,342,46	
Clèves - - - -	1,892,818,78		Lyon - - - - -	297,979,45	
Dunkerque - -	1,506,417,53		Boulogne - - -	179,605,77	
Baïonne - - -	1,481,117,56		Besançon - - -	150,381,00	
Mayence - - -	831,543,47		Nice - - - - -	127,874,92	
St. Malo - - -	675,447,93		St. Valery - - -	117,048,76	
La Rochelle -	616,143,53		Toulon - - - -	72,535,47	
Vercel - - - -	605,964,63		Foire de Beaucaire	41,279,20	
L'Orient - - -	536,078,60		Douane de Paris -	32,069,27	

67,105,620,82

† It is not long since that an apparent reduction was made on this most burthensome tax, but it was only an apparent reduction. From the inspection indeed of the Treasury accounts of the public revenue of France, it would appear that the reduction was a real one ; but, in point of fact, the land is still equally burthened, though the load goes under another name ; and the people of France have precisely the same gratification that the English would have, if the power of Government could take off a million a year from the land tax, and add it to the county-rate.

selines, des toiles de coton blanches, et peintes, des toiles de fil et coton, et des cotons filés pour mèches ; cette mesure ne tient pas moins à des considérations politiques qu'à celles commerciales. L'importation des toiles de coton de la compagnie des Indes Anglaises s'opposait à l'accroissement de nos fabriques : en vain les droits avaient été successivement augmentés : pour en paralyser les effets les Anglais baissaient également leur prix, dans l'espoir qu'ils seraient amplement dédommagés de ce sacrifice momentané s'ils parvenaient à détruire les manufactures Françaises. Déjà les magasins des fabriquans étaient encombrés de cotons filés ; de tissus, qu'ils ne pouvaient vendre ; de cotons en laine qu'ils ne pouvaient faire filer, parce que la matière fabriquée manquait d'écoulement. Enfin, l'admission des toiles de coton étrangères rendait la France tributaire de l'Angleterre d'environ 60 millions par an.‡

On ne peut se dissimuler que les manufactures de toiles peintes, qui ne sont point approvisionnées de toiles de coton blanches, suffiront momentanément de la prohibition, parce que nos tisseranderies ne pourront, du

‡ The nostrum of high duties, which, it is here admitted, has failed in curing the Anglomania for muslins, is not likely to be more efficacious in its operation on the taste of the French for sugar and coffee. Instead, however, of receiving these articles through the custom-houses, whilst an ad valorem duty, of more than 200 per cent. on the value continues, they probably will endeavour to supply themselves by means of smuggling from British depôts ; and the inhabitants on the coast will readily facilitate the introduction into the interior of every species of colonial produce, usually consumed in France. The consequence will be that the professed object of the new duties, "de trouver dans les ressources des impôts indirects les moyens de soulager l'agriculture," will be completely frustrated.

moins dans la première année, suppléer les toiles de l'Inde.

Il est également vrai que les tisseurs ne pouvant donner les toiles de coton à un prix aussi modique que les Anglais, celui des toiles peintes éprouvera quelque augmentation ; mais ces inconveniens inséparables d'un changement de système ne seront que passagers. Les fabriquans de tissus, excités par leur propre intérêt, voudront conserver l'avantage que la loi leur accorde : ils sentiront qu'ils doivent alimenter les manufactures de toiles peintes qui forment leur principal moyen d'écoulement. Les tisserandies se multiplieront ; leur nombre fera baisser le prix de tissus ; et le niveau se rétablira.*

Il serait cependant possible que la prohibition des toiles de coton étrangères, dont quelques especes ne seront que très difficilement remplacées par celles de nos

* We have here some important admissions respecting the state of the French and English cotton manufactures.

1. It appears that, notwithstanding all the encouragement given to the French cotton manufactures by the Government, and the successive obstructions imposed on the trade in English cottons, by high import duties, yet still the annual import of cotton manufactures from England was nearly three millions sterling.

2. That supposing the prohibition of importing foreign cottons could be imposed, the French manufacturer of printed cottons would suffer, as the report expresses it, for a short time—"momentanément"—"du moins dans la première année."

3. That their cotton-printers being able to obtain English white cottons, at a lower price than they could be manufactured in France, the prohibition would increase the price of printed cottons ; but the same consolation is held out which has been so liberally pointed out by the French Government, in all the stages of their calamitous revolution ; "ces inconveniens inséparables d'un changement du système ne seront que passagers."

fabriques, en diminuât la consommation : mais ce résultat tournerait au profit de l'industrie la plus précieuse, parce quelle se lie aux progrès de l'agriculture. En effet, messieurs, c'est l'agriculture qui fournit de chanvres et de lins nos nombreuses fabriques de toiles, celles de batistes, qu' aucune nation n'a encore pu imiter ; c'est le cultivateur qui, par l'éducation du bétail, fournit la matière première des étoffes de laine ; c'est lui qui, en améliorant les races de ses moutons, mettra bientôt la France en état de n'avoir plus recours aux laines étrangères pour les draps fins ; c'est encore lui qui plante les mûriers, qui élève les vers à soie, et alimente nos manufactures d'étoffes de soie. Ces fabriques sont celles véritablement nationales, parce qu'elles doivent tout à notre sol et rien à l'étranger, et sans doute elles ne peuvent entrer dans la balance avec celles dont la matière première nous enlève 40 à 50 millions par an.

L'Empereur n'a pas cru que le moment de défendre l'entrée des cotons filés fût arrivé, parce qu'il est constant que nos filatures ne peuvent encore fournir des numéros assez fins pour la fabrication des mousselines.

Pour concilier l'intérêt des fileurs avec la nécessité d'encourager les fabriques de mousselines, les cotons filés sont imposés à un droit uniforme de 7 francs par kilogramme : * il est prohibitif pour les numéros communs, et assez élevé pour les numéros fins pour déterminer les propriétaires des filatures à faire de nouveaux efforts.†

* A kilogramme is somewhat more than two pounds English.

† The French muslin-manufacturer, will probably, find to his cost, that this is a most singular contrivance for encouraging his labours. He is not only not to buy his cotton twist from England,

L'importation des cotons filés pour mèches était permise en payant dix pour cent de la valeur. On pouvait sous cette dénomination et en donnant aux échevaux la forme de ceux de fils à mèches des fils propres au tissage qui alors n'acquittaient que 4 à 5 sols par livre.

La prohibition des fils à mèches aura le double avantages de favoriser nos fabriques et en réservant au rouet la filature des mèches de donner aux pauvres mères de famille une sorte de compensation au travail que les grands établissemens leur enlèvent.*

En examinant la prohibition des toiles de coton sous le rapport des revenus publics on reconnaît qu'elle les diminuera de 9 à 10 millions, et c'est pour compenser en partie cette perte que les cotons en laine ont été assujettis à un droit de 60 francs par quintal métrique : il est sans inconvénient réel pour le fabricant, puisqu'il n'a plus à craindre la concurrence des tissus étrangers. Il sera peu sensible pour le consommateur, parce qu'il n'augmentera que dans une très faible proportion le prix de la toile. On peut encore observer que les droits d'entrée se partagent, presque toujours, entre l'étranger qui vend la marchandise et celui qui l'achète. Ce droit ne serait pas même un obstacle à la vente de nos toiles à

which furnished it finer and cheaper than France could do; but in future the cotton twist used in France, at least for the coarser muslins, it is here supposed, is to be made there from cotton imported, under a duty of nearly 6d. a pound. Muslins smuggled into France will probably pay for cambrics smuggled into England.

* The last great benefit expected from this prohibitory law is the encouragement of spinning wheels! "de donner aux pauvres mères de famille une sorte de compensation au travail que les grands établissemens leur enlèvent."

l'étranger, puis que le projet de loi accorde une prime à l'exportation ; mais, avant que l'on ait à s'occuper de cette branche de commerce extérieur, il faut que nos manufactures en toiles et étoffes de cotons puissent fournir à la consommation de 33 millions d'habitans : et, certes, pour atteindre ce but, elles ont beaucoup d'efforts à faire ; de grands accroissemens à obtenir. Il est, donc, sage d'attendre que l'expérience ait prouvé qu'il y a un excédent de fabrication et alors le gouvernement jugera si le droit sur les cotons doit être modifié. *Moniteur* 27 April, 1806.

No. 3.

Le ministre de l'intérieur a — Prefêt du dep. de —.

Paris, le 27 Mars, 1807.

En appelant, M. le Prefêt, votre zele et vos soins pour introduire et multiplier dans votre département la culture du coton, j'avais l'intention de vous fournir autant qu'il dependait de moi les moyens d'exécuter sous ce rapport les ordres du gouvernement. J'ai fait en Espagne, en Italie, et dans l'Amerique septentrionale de demandes de graines de coton ; du coton herbaré surtout, qui convient le mieux à votre sol, et dont la recolte ne peut nuire en aucune manière aux autres exploitations agricoles. Et aussitôt que ces graines seront parvenus aux destinations que j'ai données je me propose d'en faire une distribution convenable.

J'ai chargé un agriculteur distingué,* membre de l'institut, et de la société d'agriculture du département de

* Monsieur Tessier.

la Seine, de travailler à une instruction relative à cette culture. La publicité de cette instruction ne pourra que produire les plus grands avantages.

L'intention de l'Empereur étant de donner une utile impulsion à une culture que l'activité nouvelle de nos fabriques de tissu et de filature, suite du decret du 22 Fevrier 1806, rend de plus en plus interessante, je vous prie de faire connaitre qu'il sera accordé une prime d'un franc pour chaque kilogramme du coton qui sera recolté, nettoyé, et pret à être filé. Pour meriter cet encouragement et eviter tout abus il sera necéssaire que les cultivateurs fassent devant l'administration locale la declaration de l'étendue de terrain qu'ils se proposent de consacrer à l'exploitation du coton.

(Signé) CHAMPAGNY.

Moniteur, 1 April 1807.

No. 9.

Séance du 7 Septembre 1807.

M. Perrée, Rapporteur.—Messieurs, la loi qui vous est présentée continue d'attester la sagesse de celle qui a autorisé le gouvernement à modifier les droits de douane suivant la necessité des circonstances, dans l'absence du corps-legislatif. Les faits prouvent à la nation la juste confiance de ses mandataires et la constante sollicitude du gouvernement. En effet, messieurs, la lutte des fabriques étrangères contre les nôtres n'était pas moins vive que la guerre des coalitions. De téméraires desseins ont été anéantis ; les importations de nos ennemis ont été repoussées du continent ; et les funestes habitudes de l'Anglomanie ont perdu leur empire. Ce résultat a été l'effet

de la longue patience du gouvernement, et des fortes mesures que lui a dictées la nécessité : elles ont froissé, sans doute, des intérêts particuliers ; mais bientôt l'opinion publique a su leur applaudir ; bientôt aussi l'étranger ne s'est pas moins étonné de l'influence de notre système de douanes que de la rapidité de nos conquêtes. Ce système aussi a eu le double avantage de multiplier et perfectionner nos filatures et nos tissages ; la certitude du privilège exclusif de notre consommation a donné au travail un utile aliment, et au commerce des succès inattendus. La baisse de l'intérêt de l'argent a permis de modérer le prix des objets fabriqués ; notre exportation suit maintenant avec facilité les chemins ouverts par la victoire. La combinaison de ce même système, à l'égard des importations des denrées coloniales de l'étranger a eu les conséquences les plus heureuses. Si le gouvernement s'est vu forcé d'augmenter successivement les droits d'entrée et de consommation sur les denrées coloniales, l'événement a justifié sa prévoyance : le prix des ces denrées ne s'est pas élevé en raison du droit : le besoin de vendre a transigé à cet égard avec la spéculation au bien-être du consommateur : cette imposition a donc porté atteinte à la valeur des propriétés de nos ennemis ; nos besoins ont été satisfaits, et la perception s'est fondue dans la masse des impositions qui permettent tant d'améliorations intérieures. Tel est, messieurs, l'effet salutaire de cette persévérance si utile dans l'ensemble de l'administration. Aujourd'hui elle jouit de son ouvrage : les lois des douanes, si mobiles par leur essence, ont pris un caractère de fixité qui annonce au commerce ce qu'il peut espérer, et à nos ennemis ce qu'ils doivent craindre. *Moniteur 8 Sept. 1807.*

No. 10.

Extract from the Introduction to a Work entitled *Chimie appliquée aux arts*, par M. I. A. Chaptal, published in 1807.

Le gouvernement Français doit s'occuper essentiellement des manufactures de laine, de soie, de lin, de chanvre, de la distillation des vins, de la fabrication des poteries, et de tous les objets dont le sol lui présente avec abondance les matières premières. Ce n'est que par une interversion déplorable de cet ordre de choses qu'on l'a vu encourager, il y a un demi-siècle, les fabriques de coton, sans penser que le sort de ces établissemens, nourris par des matières du dehors, alloit être livré à toutes les chances des révolutions, à toutes les intrigues des cabinets, à toutes les variations des loix sur les; douanes et que les fabriques, essentiellement territoriales, souffriroient d'autant plus de cette concurrence, que, pour encourager, multiplier et raffermir ces établissemens naissans, il falloit accorder des primes, prohiber l'entrée des produits analogues, et tourner, vers cette industrie vraiment exotique, tous les capitaux, toutes les lumières, et tous les bras.*

* Je ne parle que de ce qu'on auroit dû faire il y a cinquante ans. Aujourd'hui que les fabriques de coton forment une branche considérable de notre industrie, aujourd'hui que les travaux sur le coton occupent à-peu-pres deux cent mille individus, le gouvernement doit, sans doute, les protéger. Mais, a-t-il été d'un sage politique de les fixer en France? Leur introduction n'a-t-elle pas nui aux fabriques, essentiellement nationales, de drap, de soie, de lin, etc.? Le gouvernement n'eût-il pas mieux fait d'appliquer ses encouragemens à ces dernières fabriques, et de laisser à nos rivaux les fils et les tissus de coton, comme moyens d'échange contre les produits de notre industrie et de notre sol? Voilà la question.

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APPENDIX, C.

*Enumeration of the different Countries which produce
Naval Timber.*

ASIA

Possesses large and numerous forests. Those in Pegu contain almost every description of timber known in Hindostan; and about four days journey to the north of the capital, firs, fit for masts, grow in abundance. The teak tree is found in various parts of the country to the north of the capital, as well as to the south, and is much used at Rangoon, and elsewhere, for ship-building.*

Teak is also found in abundance on the coast of Malabar. Several species of fine naval timber grow in New Holland, and the neighbouring islands.

Captain Cook particularly notices the fine timber in New Zealand, as an inducement for establishing a colony there. On the banks of the river, which he named the Thames, he measured a tree as straight as an arrow, 89 feet high to the first branch, and 19 feet 8 inches in the girth.† He adds "as we advanced we saw many others that were
" still larger; we cut down a young one, and the wood
" proved heavy and solid, not fit for masts, but such as
" would make the finest plank in the world. Our carpenter, who was with us, said that the timber resembled
" that of the pitch pine, which is lightened by tapping.
" We found many stout trees of other kinds."

* *Symes's Ava.*

† *First Voyage*, vol. 1, p. 40, and vol. 2. p. 352.

AFRICA

Appears to possess, on its north coast, forests of naval timber very conveniently situated for supplying our dock-yards at Malta and Gibraltar. The information given by Mr. Bruce, (in the introduction to his travels, p. 20.) respecting the town of Bona, and its neighbourhood, may, perhaps, with respect to other objects, as well as naval timber, not be undeserving the attention of government. "Its trade" (he says) "consists now in the exportation of wheat, when, in plentiful years, that trade is permitted by the government of Algiers. I had a delightful voyage down the coast, and passed the small island Tabarca, lately a fortification of the Genoese, now in the hands of the régency of Tunis, who took it by surprize, and made all the inhabitants slaves. The island is famous for a coral fishery, and along the coast are immense forests of large beautiful oaks, more than sufficient to supply the necessities of all the maritime powers in the Levant, if the quality of the wood be but equal to the size and beauty of the tree." Africa also furnishes naval timber, but probably not in great quantity, on the western coast. Mr. Golberry, in his account of the French and English establishments on that coast, states, that the latter, by means of black shipwrights, build vessels of the timber of the country from 20 to 100 tons burthen.*

AMERICA,

In almost every part, is abundantly supplied with naval timber. We are informed, from the natural history of Dutch Guiana, that "the soil in the inland elevated part of the country, is clothed with lofty ever-verdant forests, affording the most valuable species of timber, either for solidity, weight, duration, or orna-

* *Voyage en Afrique*, tome 2, p. 240.

ment.* The locust, green hart, purple hart, bullet
 “ tree, bow wood, and iron wood” (of which particular
 descriptions are given) “ grow in the internal parts of
 “ the country.” The fine rivers, however, by which
 Guiana is intersected, afford the means of easy removal
 to the coast. “ All these trees are formed into pieces of
 “ timber adapted for the building of windmills, and trans-
 “ ported in great quantities, and at a very great expence,
 “ to the English West India islands, where they are
 “ sold to the planters for not less than 50l. sterling each
 “ piece, especially the principal ones.”†

Brasil is also well provided with timber. Respecting
 the river Grande, it is remarked, that “ immense woods
 “ ranging along the coast each way crowd its banks, and
 “ the trees of which they are formed are considered as
 “ the best for ship-building in Brasil. It is from thence
 “ and Patipe adjoining, that the King’s yards are sup-
 “ plied with timber. The trees chiefly used are the
 “ sippifura, peroba, oraubu, and louro. The first re-
 “ sembles the teak of India; the others, species of oak
 “ and larch. Patumuju, angelim, and cedar, are used
 “ for deck planks; piquosa and peroba are a lighter
 “ wood, and similar to fir.”‡

Condamine, in his account of the river of the Amazons,
 mentions the size of timber on its banks. One tree,
 from the root to the branches, was 84 French feet long,
 and in circumference, when stripped of its bark, 24 feet.
 He adds, that he saw a table at the governor of Para’s,
 of a hard and polished wood, in one piece eight or nine
 feet long, and four and a half wide. ||

* *Bancroft’s Guiana*, p. 13.

† *Ibid.* p. 72.

‡ *Lindley’s Voyage to Brasil*, p. 225.

|| 8vo edition 1778, p. 141.



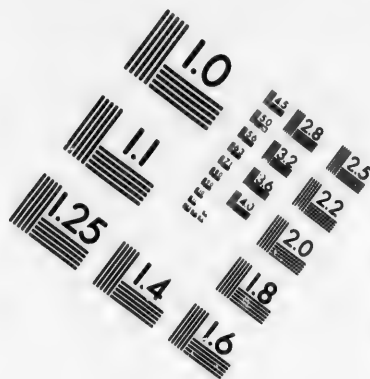
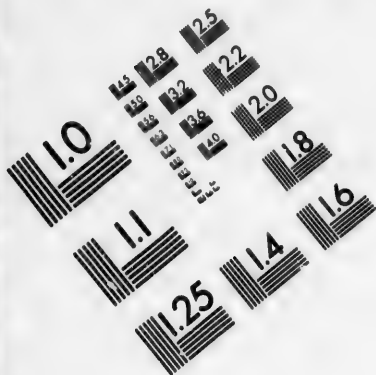
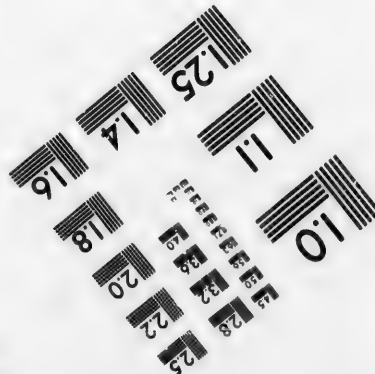
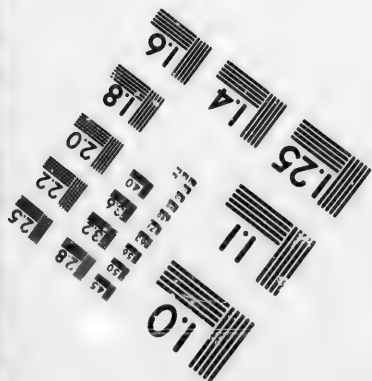
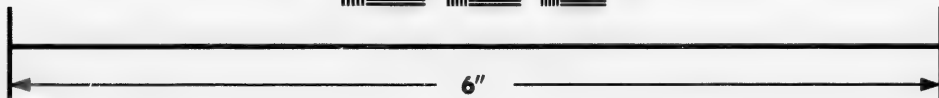
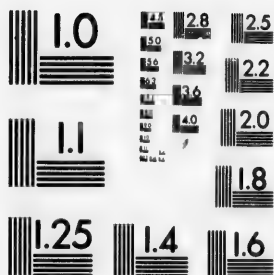


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Of the river Sedger, near Port Famine, in the Straights of Magellan, Commodore Byron says; "on each side of this river there are the finest trees I ever saw, and I make no doubt but that they would supply the British navy with the best masts in the world. Some of them are of a great height, and more than eight feet in diameter, which is proportionably more than eight yards in circumference." *

Coxe, in his description of Florida and Carolina, says, that "excellent timber for building ships, as oak, fir, cedar, spruce, and divers other sorts, are found there; †" and Morse states that "the timber of Louisiana is as fine as any in the world." ‡ Beech, elm, ash, pine, sycamore, chesnut, and walnut, are found in Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia. Upper Canada is capable of supplying any quantity of timber, and cannot be exhausted for a long time. These colonies are intersected by bays, inlets, and navigable rivers, for floating down timber; and the whole coast, from the boundaries of Massachusetts to the Straights of Bellisle, is lined with harbours. Upper Canada has this advantage over the other British provinces, that there is plenty of white oak of an excellent quality to be got from it: some of this has of late years been used for the navy. Fine masts as large as 35 inches diameter, after trimming, have been received from New Brunswick; the voyage from which is shorter than from Canada. ||

EUROPE,

However, is the nearest mart for naval timber. Of the southern parts, the country round the Euxine is abundant.

* *Byron's Voyage, in Hawksworth's Voyages, vol. i. p. 38.*

† P. 92.

‡ P. 567.

|| *Oddy's European Commerce, p. 540-3.*

ly supplied with wood, and maintains its ancient character of being a nursery for navies.* Large supplies of timber are obtained by the Russians from the Pontic forests; but the natural obstructions of cataracts have much impeded the conveyance of it by means which the large rivers that flow through the country appear to present.

The southern coast of the Black Sea is also well stocked with timber. An account of the prices of masts, and several other interesting particulars relative to the different naval stores furnished by the ports on this coast, or imported for the use of the Turkish navy, are contained in a work published at Amsterdam in 1787, in 12mo. entitled, "*observations sur le commerce de la Mer Noire*," from which it will be sufficient to make a short extract relative to the expence of building ships of war at Sinope for the Grand Signior. "Un vaisseau de guerre de deux ponts, percé pour 70 pieces de canon, ne coute au Grand Seigneur, lancé à l'eau, avec sa mâture, sans cordage, voiles, ni batterie, que 15 à 16,000 piastres.† Les batimens marchands à trois mats avec l'entrepont de 23 à 24 pics‡ de longueur, reviennent de 17 à 1800 piastres, et les Saïgués a caisse de 22 pics de longueur content de 12 à 1300 piastres." The author, a Frenchman, adds the following remark: "quel avantage ne seroit-ce pas pour nous s'il étoit possible d'obtenir de la Porte la permission de construire des vaisseaux de guerre dans ce port. Il nâit quelque fois des circonstances dans lesquelles on pourrait peut-être faire accepter une pareille proposi-

* *Quamvis Pontica pinus sylvæ filia nobilis.*—Hor.

† That is, from 3000l. to 3200l. Mr. Eton says, (in his account of Turkey, published in 1799) that a ship of the line at Sinope cost only 9000l. without guns and rigging.

‡ The Turkish pike is rather more than two English feet.

“ tion au Ministère Ottoman, et l'exécution d'un sem-
 “ lable projet ne seroit peut-être pas impossible à un
 “ ambassadeur habile qui saurait choisir et profiter de
 “ certains momens heureux et presenter adroitement les
 “ objets du coté le plus favorable.”*

If Turkey remains an independent state, the supply of manufactured naval stores from Great Britain, as copper, iron bolts, nails, and other articles, for the use of the Turkish navy, it is probable, might secure to this country an ample supply of naval timber from the Turkish provinces; and, if it should be deemed expedient to establish a naval arsenal at Malta, it would, no doubt, be a consideration of infinite importance to procure, not only timber, but hemp and tar, which the work above quoted states can be furnished in abundance by the Crimea and other countries on the Black Seas: and although the French are now in possession of those states on the Adriatic from whence the most abundant naval stores can be obtained, and possess also the contiguous dock yards of Venice,† the possession of this central station will, probably, contribute, very materially, to preserve our maritime ascendancy in the Mediterranean.

The acquisition of Istria and Dalmatia will not only furnish France with timber, but with sailors; and the emancipation of Greece from the Turkish yoke, which

* P. 218.

† Bonaparte in his late visit to Venice (in Dec. 1807), appears to have directed his attention to the improvement of the naval arsenal at Venice, which it may be presumed will be abundantly supplied with timber from Dalmatia. Notwithstanding all his exertions he must, in all probability for a long time, acquiesce like his predecessor the Doge, in seeing “ the Adriatic ploughed by bolder prowls than his.”

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Mr. Eton contemplated a few years ago, as likely to give
 "a free and independent ally to Britain and Russia, and
 "to form a connecting link in the social bond of com-
 "merce," is now more likely to add to the naval re-
 "sources of France. "Greece was ever a prolific nursery of
 "seamen, and at present reluctantly supplies the greater
 "part of the Turkish marine forces.* From the coasts of
 "the Adriatic, about Ragusa, Prevasa, &c. the French
 "have, for many years, imported a great quantity of the
 "most excellent oak timber; there is, indeed, no finer
 "timber any where to be found for the purpose of ship-
 "building than that which grows in those parts in great
 "abundance."†

Sonnini observes, that the "gulf of Macri affords to
 "shipping excellent havens, capable of containing fleets.
 "They were frequented by ships engaged in the carry-
 "ing trade in the three winter months when navigation in
 "the Archipelago is dangerous. The crews are em-
 "ployed in refitting the vessels, and in cutting wood,
 "with which they loaded them in order to convey it to
 "places where it was wanted, and they sold it. This
 "wood cost only the trouble of felling it: the finest
 "trees were at the disposal of the first comer; and I have
 "been always astonished that France never thought of
 "procuring timber for ship-building in these great in-
 "sulated forests, the preservation of which no one super-
 "intended."‡ The same author remarks, that the fo-
 "rests in the island of Cyprus, afford very fine wood for
 "building and planks, and that the tar, pitch, and turpen-
 "tine of Cyprus, are more esteemed than of any other
 "country. ||

* *Eton's Turkey*, edit. 1799, p. 448.

† *Eton's Turkey*, p. 520.

‡ *Sonnini's Travels in Greece and Turkey*, 4to. edit. p. 80.

|| P. 43.

THE NORTH OF EUROPE

Presents various markets for the purchase of naval timber. " Considerable remains yet exist of the ancient forests that pervaded Germany. Such are found in the south of Meeklenburg, continued easterly in different parts of the Russian dominions; but the timber of Dantzic is supplied by the navigation of the Vistula: and the sandy regions on the south of the Baltic seem little adapted to vigorous vegetation. The chief forests appear always to have extended along the middle regions of Germany from the N. W. towards the S. E. The Dromling, Sollinger, Hartz, Luttenwald, and Thuringian forests, are connected with the forests of Silesia, and extend through the centre of Poland and Russia.* The Rhine receives a considerable portion of the German forests. The timber is conveyed in vast floats or rafts, in some instances worth 30,000l. sterling, from Andernach and other places on the Rhine, to Dort, where it is sold.†

It is remarkable, that whilst Great Britain, during the last twenty years, has contented herself with looking to the inclosure of the royal forests, (a measure fortunately for the country not yet executed,) France has, not only by the acquisition of territory on the Adriatic, secured a free access to the inexhaustible forests of Istria and Dalmatia, but by the possession of the fortresses on both banks of the Rhine, and by a predominating influence in the heart of Europe, has obtained the means of a nearer supply from the German forests. This enterprising nation, however, has not neglected to turn her attention to the Baltic; and the following extract from a work published by two French travellers in 1796, will shew in what

* *Pinkerton's Geography*, vol. i. p. 602.

† *Ibid.* vol. i. p. 482.

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manner the dock yards at Brest and L'Orient were supplied with naval timber. “ Il existoit entre la France et la
 “ Prusse un traité, pour fournir aux ports de Brest et de
 “ L'Orient des bois de construction. Le dernier traité
 “ commencé en 1788 étoit pour quatre ans, et finissoit
 “ en 1791. L'officier preposé par le gouvernement Fran-
 “ çais étoit chargé de le renouveler : la Prusse devoit four-
 “ nir au moins cent soixante cinq mille pieds cubes de
 “ bois de construction : le prix de ces bois étoit fixé com-
 “ me il suit : plançons de quarante à soixante pieds de
 “ long sur quinze pouces de haut, 3 livres 6 sous le pied ;
 “ de trente à quarante pieds sur douze pouces, 2 livres 15
 “ sous ; de vingt cinq à trente pieds sur dix à onze pou-
 “ ces, 2 livres 4 sous. Membrures, premiere espece
 “ de quinze pieds sur quinze pouces, 3 livres 4 sous le
 “ pied ; deuxieme espece, de douze pieds sur douze
 “ pouces, 2 livres 10 sous le pied ; troisieme espece, de
 “ neuf pieds sur douze pouces, 1 livre 10 sous. Courbes
 “ de huit pieds de long sur treize pouces, 3 livres 15 sous
 “ le pied ; au dessous, 2 livres. Les demandes du gou-
 “ vernement, pour 1790, ont été de deux cent quatre
 “ mille pieds cubes ; pour 1791, de deux cent dix huit
 “ mille pieds. Du moment que le bois arrivoient l'officier
 “ chargé par le gouvernement les examinoit : il avoit le
 “ droit de refuser ceux qui ne lui paroissoient pas bons,
 “ et l'administration Prussienne ne pouvoit vendre une
 “ seule piece qui n'eut été visitée. L'officier à demeure à
 “ Hambourg ; il avoit un louis d'appointemens par jour,
 “ et deux hommes avec lui sous ses ordres. Nous sommes
 “ bien etonnés que la Prusse étant depuis longtemps en-
 “ tierement liée avec l'Angleterre ne nous ait pas privés
 “ plutôt d'un commerce aussi avantageux sans attendre
 “ que l'état des affaires politiques ait fait une loi de la
 “ rupture de ce traité.” *

* *Voyage de deux Français en Allemagne, Danemarck, Suède, Russie, et Pologne, fait en 1790—1792. 1 Tome, p. 163.*

APPENDIX D.

RATE PER CENTUM of value to be added to the OFFICIAL VALUES of the following articles respectively in order to produce the REAL VALUE.

		Rate PER CENTUM to be added.
Northern European produce imported	Flax rough	about 75
	Hemp rough	190
	Hides	100
	Linseed	140
	Skins Calf	100
	Geneva	200
	Tallow	140
	Tar	25
	Sheeps wool	190
	Linen yarn	100
Southern European produce imported	Currants	90
	Raisins	140
	Silk	40
	Brandy	110
	Portugal wine	140
	Other wines	200
American and colo- nial produce im- ported	Spanish wool	200
	Wheat flour	150
	Cotton wool	150
	Hides	80
	Skins and furs	100

APPENDIX E.—TABLE No. 1.

INCREASE OF FINE WOOLLED SHEEP.

It is supposed that the operation has begun in the year 1808, and that the produce in that year will be as below set down. For raising the produce of the year 1809, the rams (4th cross, col. 1.) of the year 1807, and three preceding years, (those of 1803 being discarded,) are used, in the proportion of one ram to 100 ewes; and after the ewes (in col. 1, 3, 5, and 8) of the years 1807, and three preceding years, are thus supplied, the surplus rams (4th cross, col. 1.) are used with common ewes, of which it is supposed that any number may be procured. For raising the produce of the year 1810, the ewes and rams of 1804 are discarded, and those of 1808 taken in; and so on. The lambs of 1808 (4th cross, col. 1.) are used for the year 1809, and so on, in the proportion of 1 to 10 ewes. The ewes are supposed to take the rams at a little more than a year and half old, and to produce at two years, and to rear 4 generations. This limited service both of rams and ewes is considered as sufficient to compensate for any intermediate mortality between the commencement of their service and the period of their being discarded. It is also supposed that there are no twins, and that the male and female produce are equal. The rams of the 1st and 2d crosses, and of the 3d cross (col. 4,) are not used. The rams of one year and upwards of the 3d cross, (col. 3,) are used with common ewes, and produce the 1st cross, in col. 10; and its subsequent crosses with rams of the 4th cross (col. 1,) produce the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th crosses, in col. 7, 4, and 2, respectively; the 5th cross produced by rams, of the 4th cross, (col. 1,) and ewes of the 4th cross, (col. 2,) is included in col. 1. The 1st cross, (col. 9,) is produced by rams of the 4th cross, (col. 2,) with common ewes. The 2nd cross, (col. 6,) is produced by rams of the 4th cross, (col. 1,) with ewes 1st cross, (col. 9.) No rams are allowed for the trifling fractions under 100, contained in the aggregate stock of each different cross of ewes to be supplied each year.

TABLE No. 1.

Years.	Col. 1.		Col. 2.		Col. 3.		Col. 4.		Col. 5.	
	4th Cross of Rams col. 1, with Ewes, col. 1, 2, and 3.		4th Cross of Rams, col. 1, with Ewes, col. 4.		3d Cross of Rams, col. 1, with Ewes, col. 5.		3d Cross of Rams, col. 1, with Ewes, col. 7.		2d Cross of Rams, col. 1, with Ewes, col. 8.	
	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.
1803	25	100			25	100				200
1804	50	200			50	200				400
1805	75	300			75	300				600
1806	100	400			100	400				800
1807	300	600			300	600				1,000
1808	1,000	1,000			1,000	1,000			1,500	1,500
1809	1,500	1,500			1,400	1,400			2,100	2,100
1810	2,300	2,300			1,950	1,950			7,050	7,050
1811	3,450	3,450			2,700	2,700			19,725	19,725
1812	5,175	5,175			5,825	5,825			50,975	50,975
1813	7,650	7,650			15,187	15,187			105,850	105,850
1814	12,150	12,150	1,562	1,562	39,925	39,925			176,100	176,100
1815	22,118	22,118	7,968	7,968	91,800	91,800			248,312	248,312
1816	46,812	46,812	28,437	28,437	176,325	176,325			292,787	292,787
1817	104,680	104,680	80,458	80,458	290,618	290,618			295,137	295,137
1818	224,966	224,966	188,436	188,436	411,524	411,524			274,945	274,945

Col. 1, includes Merinos; and the 4th cross with them, and superior crosses.

(Table No. 1, continued.)

Years.	Col. 6. 2d Cross of Rams, col. 1, 2d with Ewes, col. 9.		Col. 7. Cross of Rams, col. 1, 2d with Ewes, col. 10.		Col. 8. 1st Cross of Rams, col. 1, with common Ewes.		Col. 9. 1st Cross of Rams, col. 2, with common Ewes.		Col. 10. 1st Cross of Rams, col. 3, with common Ewes.	
	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.
1803						300			12,500	19,500
1804						600			26,250	46,750
1805						900			73,750	130,000
1806						1,200			140,000	232,500
1807						1,500			232,500	352,500
1808					10,500	10,500			593,750	593,750
1809				6,250	26,250	26,250			1,250,100	1,250,100
1810			6,250	19,375	63,750	63,750			1,250,100	1,250,100
1811			19,375	56,250	111,350	111,350			3,181,850	3,181,850
1812			56,250	126,250	151,000	151,000			7,636,850	7,636,850
1813			126,250	236,250	170,975	170,975			16,161,850	16,161,850
1814			236,250	399,375	152,650	152,650				
1815			399,375	659,375	115,950	115,950	78,100	78,100		
1816			659,375	1,230,925	109,215	109,215	476,500	476,500		
1817			1,230,925	2,705,600	177,935	177,935	1,898,350	1,898,350		
1818	39,050	39,050	2,705,600		403,650	403,650				

NOTE.

It appeared unnecessary to include in col. 5 and 8, any estimate of rams produced before 1808.

NOTE. A sufficient stock of rams of one year old and upwards provided by the operation to supply the ewes of the first cross (col. 10) and the superior crosses till the year 1816, when the number of ewes of the first cross (col. 10) to be supplied, being 1,318,750, and there remaining only 13,160 rams of the fourth cross after the superior crosses above col. 10 were supplied with rams, the deficiency is provided for by using 275 ram lambs, part of 22,118, the stock of ram lambs of the 4th cross, col. 1; the remainder, 21,843, are used to raise the 109,215 ewes, and 109,215 ram lambs, in col. 8.

In the year 1817, the number of ewes of the first cross, (col. 10,) to be supplied, being 2,461,850, and there being only 23,490 rams of the fourth cross after the superior crosses were supplied, the deficiency of rams is supplied by 11,225 ram lambs, part of 46,812, the ram lambs in col. 1; the remainder, 35,587, are used with common ewes.

In 1818, there remaining only 52,533 rams of the fourth cross to supply 5,411,200 ewes of the first cross, (col. 10,) the deficiency is supplied by 15,740 ram lambs, part of 104,680, the ram lambs in col. 1.

APPENDIX E.—TABLE No. 2.

This Table, extracted from Table No. 1, contains all the rams and ewes employed to produce the stock of fine woolled sheep of the third cross (col. 3.) and superior crosses supposed to exist in 1818, when their number will, accordingly be 3,455,578; this being the aggregate of the produce of the three first columns in the year 1814, and four following years.

Years.	Col. 1.		Col. 2.		Col. 3.		Col. 4.		Col. 5.		Col. 7.		Col. 8.		Col. 10.	
	4th Cross and upwards.		4th Cross.		3d Cross.		3d Cross.		2d Cross.		2d Cross.		1st Cross.		1st Cross.	
	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.	Rams.	Ewes.
1803	25	100			25	100			200				500			
1804	50	200			50	200			400				900			
1805	75	300			75	300			600				1,000			
1806	100	400			100	400			800				1,500			
1807	300	600			300	600			1,000				10,000			12,500
1808	1,000	1,000			1,000	1,000			1,500				26,250			26,250
1809	1,500	1,500			1,400	1,400			2,100				63,700			73,750
1810	2,300	2,300			1,950	1,950			7,030				111,350			140,000
1811	5,450	3,450							19,725				50,975			23,500
1812	5,175	3,175							50,975				151,000			
1813	7,650	7,650							105,850				170,675			
1814	12,150	12,150	1,562	1,562	59,925	59,925	3,125	3,125	176,100				152,350			
1815	22,118	22,118	7,968	7,968	91,800	91,800	40,937	40,937	248,313							
1816	46,812	46,812	28,437	28,437	176,325	176,325	104,062	104,062	292,787							
1817	104,660	104,660	80,468	80,468	290,618	290,618	219,062	219,062								
1818	224,956	224,956	188,436	188,436	411,524	411,524										

The rams of the 3rd cross, (col. 4.) and of the 2nd crosses, (col. 5, and 7) might, if wanted, be used with r

APPENDIX E.—TABLE No. 3.

This table shews the result of the proposed plan for encouraging the growth of fine wool in the united kingdom; upon the following suppositions; 1. That the present annual demand is 6,500,000 lbs. of fine wool of commerce, the supposed average import; 2. That during the progress of the improvement (10 years) the annual demand for fine wool will be equivalent to this quantity; to be supplied either by import, or by home produce; 3. That the fine wool of commerce imported is reduced, by scouring, one fifth; 4. That the wool, so reduced, is worth 6s. per lb.; 5. That in 1809 (and, so on, in every subsequent year) the wool of the stock of rams and ewes in the 3 first columns of Table 1, (viz. those produced in the 4 preceding years) will average 2 lbs. per sheep, clean scoured wool, equal to the Spanish wool, and also worth 6s. per lb. Nothing is reckoned on account of the present year's home produce of fine wool, nor on account of the increased value, which must be considerable, of the fleeces of the crosses inferior to those in col. 1, 2, 3, Table 1; and the lambs of the year are also thrown out of every year's account. If, however, the lambs-wool in 1818 were added, the quantity, (1,649,852 lbs. at 1 lb. per lamb) would, with the sheep's wool of that year, (3,611,452 lbs.) compose an aggregate of 5,261,304 lbs. cleaned scoured wool; which exceeds the present supposed import by 61,304 lbs. The 6th column of the table shews the annual amount of the proposed premiums for rams; and the 7th column that of the premium for lambs: the proposed duty in every year much exceeds the amount of premium.

TABLE No. 3.

Col. 1.	Col. 2.	Col. 3.	Col. 4.	Col. 5.	Col. 6.	Col. 7.
	Estimated produce of the associated duties	Amount of fine	Estimated of fine wool to be an			

TABLE No. 3.

Years.	Col. 1. Estimated im- port of fine wool of commerce.	Col. 2. Estimated produce of the proposed duty of 6d per pound on the fine wool of com- merce imported.	Col. 3. Amount of fine wool, as re-duc- ed, by securing one fifth.	Col. 4. Estimate of fine wool to be an- nually produced in the United Kingdom.	Col. 5. Value thereof at 6s. per lb.	Col. 6. Estimated charge for Rams.	Col. 7. Estimate of premiums for Lambs.
	lbs.	£. s. d.	lbs.	lbs.	£. s.	£.	£.
1808	6,500,000	162,500 — —	5,200,000	—	—	10,500	8,130
1809	6,431,125	162,028 2 6	5,184,900	15,100	4,530 —	20,000	19,820
1810	6,468,500	161,712 10 —	5,174,800	25,200	7,560 —	20,000	38,395
1811	6,449,750	161,243 15 —	5,159,800	40,200	12,060 —	46,000	70,725
1812	6,423,500	160,587 10 —	5,138,800	61,200	18,360 —	—	122,682
1813	6,378,500	159,462 10 —	5,102,800	97,200	29,160 —	—	—
1814	6,278,815	156,970 7 6	5,023,052	176,948	53,084 8	—	—
1815	6,031,880	150,797 — —	4,825,504	37,495	112,348 16	—	—
1816	5,453,200	136,330 — —	4,362,560	837,440	251,232 —	—	—
1817	4,950,330	106,258 5 —	3,400,264	1,799,756	539,920 16	—	—
1818	1,935,635	49,642 2 6	1,588,548	3,611,452	1,083,435 12	—	—
1819	—	—	—	6,696,608	2,008,982 8	—	—
Total	—	1,567,532 2 6	—	—	—	106,500	49,152

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